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VOL. XXVIII.

OCTOBER, 1917.

No. 116

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EDITOR.

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FORWARD.

MAJOR GENERAL WILLIAM HARDING CARTER, U. S. A. RETIRED.

THE War of 1917 is fraught with much of consequence to the regular army for the new organization, just being completed, may be greatly modified as a result of future experiences in Europe. The final acceptance of the doctrine of universal liability to service, as laid down in the enactment known as the selective draft act, opens a new vista to American students of preparedness. It was a foregone conclusion that no army, qualified to take America's part in the present gigantic conflict on land and sea, could be raised under the volunteer system. If we are wise in our day and generation we will endeavor to make sure that there shall be no relapse to our old and defective system embracing regulars, national guard, militia and volunteers, with all the claims and counter claims involved in determining their relative and combined efficiency.

The first thing to be done at the conclusion of the war is to create a new national army, based upon past and present experience, which should be organized mainly with reference to war, but prepared also for the police duties of peace with which our regulars and national guard have become so familiar.

The interests of the nation alone should be considered in the adoption of a general policy. Equality of opportunity for military men is desirable to preserve contentment in normal times, yet there is no denying the fact that those responsible for the enactment of military legislation have grown weary of the problems involved in questions of promotion and relative rank, and the less publicity to that phase of army existence in the next reorganization the more comprehensive will be the consideration given to our new military policy.

It has been a real misfortune to the army that its several arms have been placed in the light of having special and sometimes antagonistic interests. The human element has always played its part and the evil results of envy and jealousy have been confined to no particular era from that of the Conway Cabal against Washington down to the pettiness of some things incident to our last war, that of 1898. Like the poor we will always have rivalries, ambitions and jealousies with us, but when our conquering soldiers shall return to our shores nothing should stand in the way of a revision of our military laws to meet the measure of the nation's need.

In the past the army has had to be satisfied with the meager legislation it could obtain from an unaroused and seemingly indifferent Congress, confused by conflicting interests and persuasive special arguments. A clear light should be made to shine upon our system by our present war experiences.

Military students have quite unanimously stood for a National Army unhampered by the numerous small state armies. If we have learned our primary lesson it certainly should include the abolition of the divisions and brigades of the national guard and of the term itself, this without any reflection upon the loyalty, fidelity or qualifications of any particular organizations. The state forces should, hereafter, comprise only such organizations as may be needed to perform duty within the commonwealth and especially during the absence of the national army in its proper field of operations. We have been forced into wrong channels in recent years and the effort to make of the state troops a substitute for a national army was doomed to failure from the first. Carrying on war is a business involv-

ing every known art and science, and nothing but business principles will justify the hope of success.

It is not probable that compulsory military service in the regular army will commend itself, as the result of the great war, but universal training of our young men by and through the regular establishment is so essential and so wholly in the interest of national efficiency and economy of life and treasure, that we may expect its careful consideration at the hands of Congress when the subject of military organization is again before it.

When the nation comes to adjust itself to the new world conditions there will be a great opportunity for men of big caliber to impress themselves upon the movement and to render inestimable service to coming generations. Unhappily nearly all our legislation on any and all subjects is the result of compromise. There will not be much room for compromise on the essential principles of our future military policy even though we may give and take on the arrangement of details. It is the duty of every officer to keep his eyes and mind alert and observant and to qualify himself for advising correctly when called upon to do so.

The service which the cavalry has rendered in Mexico and on the border of that revolution prostrated country has been conspicuous for its efficiency. The nations whose millions have "dug in" on the Belgian-French line have completely changed the character of war in that theater of operations and cavalry finds no field of special employment there. Before the termination of the war we may find that our ideas of army organization will all be modified, but such "digging in" of armies on American soil and consequent endless siege operations, are quite beyond belief at this time.

The prediction may now be indulged that when the history of the war shall have been completed the expenditure of material and the cost will create more astonishment than the list of casualties. To us the serious lesson is that the theories of peace bear so little relation to the actualities of war. In our tactical problems and maneuvers there would have been no successful advance of masses in the face of modern fire—the umpire would have settled all that.

Very little of accurate detail drifts back from the several theaters of war. The secrecy which obtains makes it all the more necessary for our own officers to study the problems of the battle lines in detail as well as from the larger point of view. There will be no more intelligent or level headed men there than our own. When we examine a map showing the lines of the combatants from the sea to and around Verdun, and come to a full realization of the very slight effect of all the fighting of the past three years, we begin to recognize that not only has there been no field of opportunity for the cavalry but that none of the other arms has arrived at such a degree of perfection as to be regarded as the determining factor in future wars. It seems as though the cost of victory in men and especially in munitions, makes it impossible to make and maintain any general advance. Practically all efforts are local and accompanied by such expenditure of artillery ammunition as to make long continued action impossible. The amount and cost of the ammunition being used is rolling up national debt at an unprecedented rate, yet when the future statistician with his cold and heartless facts, comes to recite cause and effect, we shall probably learn that the ratios of casualties of the War of 1917, when taken in connection with the numbers of men comprising the several nations in arms, are no greater than those of our Civil War, and that the weight of projectiles fired to cause each casualty will exceed the figures of our great war. These questions and a multitude of others are of great professional interest to our own service, and those who have first hand knowledge must be relied upon to enlighten their comrades of lesser opportunity.

With many cavalry regiments, transformed for the time being into field artillery, we may expect some reflection of their experiences in their post war writings. It has been a just cause for pride of arm that our cavalry has always performed, in the most admirable manner, the fighting functions of infantry on the Frontier during the Civil War and in the war with Spain. If they shall acquit themselves with equal merit as field artillerymen in the War of 1917, another bright page of history will be added to those which now contain the long record of brilliant and gallant achievements by the cavalry of other days.

The fact that the allied cavalry is not raiding around the flanks of the German lines does not determine the future employment of that arm, or its elimination in modern war, any more than the failure of the allied infantry to go "over the top" and break through should constitute a criticism of that arm. It is practically settled that either opponent, when willing to make the necessary preparation and pay the price in material and men, can smother small areas and secure a few prisoners from the shambles, but such operations have not put fear into either army, or in the hearts of the nations behind them, and the gigantic struggle goes on.

Just now we are interested in the technical military problems, but in the years to come officers of the educational qualifications usual in the American army will find profitable study in the history of events leading up to the war, as well as in the readjustments involved in the terms of peace, for upon these latter the progress of civilization will hinge. These studies are for the era of peace; just now every mind and heart and arm should concentrate upon the problem of securing that over-mastering victory which alone commands influence at the council table around which will gather those who are to write the course of future history.



EXPERIMENTAL NIGHT FIRING.

BY MAJOR HOWARD R. HICKOK, FIFTEENTH CAVALRY.

INCIDENTAL to the conditions of modern warfare night operations have taken on an increased importance. The general principles are laid down in the various treatises. Actual practice is necessary in order to acquire real efficiency. But, in general, the service in peace seems unable or unwilling, once the daily daylight routine is over, to overcome its inertia and the minor discomforts and engage in night exercises. Until this is done we will never acquire that efficiency necessary to complete success.

The subject has numerous sub-divisions, such as maneuvers, minor tactics, tactics, etc. Under the last named, fire tactics and musketry are important and intensely practical. Many will recall past incidents while on active service of out-post duty where the overwrought nerves of the detachment caused it to open a considerable fusillade on phantoms represented by the ordinary night noises and with a record of no hits. The fact that no hits or an incommensurately small number of hits are made in night firing has led to the formulation of the maxim.

"In night attacks rifle fire should in general be prohibited but the attack should be pushed in to the hand to hand combat."

This does not preclude firing in false attacks or in creating diversions.

In defense the case is different. Here, night firing can usually be provided for and means taken to make it effective. The position can usually be selected so as to have some field of fire, at least at short ranges, the foreground sufficiently cleared for that purpose, obstacles prepared to hold the attack under fire and automatic signalling devices or annunciators provided

to announce the arrival of the attack at the obstacles. The firing will in general be of little effect unless there has been previous practice or unless some auxiliaries are used. On this point Balck says* that without helping devices night firing is ineffective except at the shortest ranges, say 100 yards more or less.

Training in horizontal firing† increases the efficiency of night firing. Among the various auxiliaries may be mentioned illuminated auxiliary aiming targets, sighting rests, and the various methods of illuminating the foreground.

An illuminated auxiliary aiming target may be made as follows: Assume the obstacles to have been placed at a certain range, say 200 yards and the section of the defensive firing line fifty rifles with fifty yards front covering an equal frontage of the attack.

In the center of the rectangle thus indicated the auxiliary

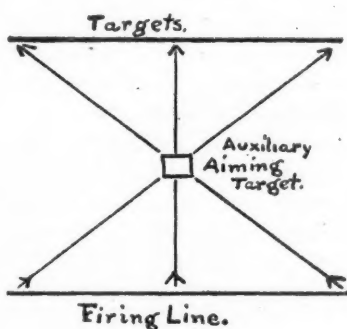
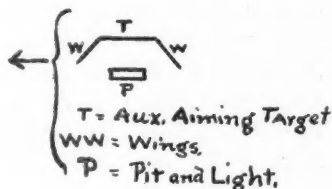


Fig. 1.



target is placed. All that this target need be is a piece of white canvas about three feet wide and four feet high with wings and supported on suitable uprights.

The side toward the enemy should be painted black and with the wings insures the target not being visible by the attack.

*"ABOUT NIGHT FIRING BY INFANTRY. War College translation No. 2668."

†"TRAINING IN NIGHT MOVEMENTS. Translation from Japanese by Lieut. Burnet."

A light, which may be a lantern or other restricted means is placed in front of the target and in a pit to prevent it being shot up. By using such an aiming device each man in the firing line will really fire on that part of the attack in front of the corresponding defender on the other flank.

Among the various forms of illuminants are: Chemicals in containers automatically set off when the attack arrives in the area where they are placed; illuminating rockets which, on bursting in the air, ignite an illuminant suspended from a parachute, range up to 500 yards, time of burning one-half to three-fourths minutes; rifle and pistol illuminating grenade discharged from fire arms and similar in action to illuminating rockets; star shells discharged from mortars or howitzers and liberating one or more illuminants similar to those of rockets, but having a greater range. If a great number of these illuminants are set off simultaneously and at frequent intervals before the previous ones die out there is a continuously lighted area on which an effective fire may be brought.

The search light has probably been as much developed for battle use as any other means of illumination. The restrictions on its use are due chiefly to its vulnerability to hostile fire.

Incidental to a School of Musketry at Fort William McKinley, P. I., in December, 1916, and to instructing a class of non-commissioned officers at the same post for commissions, April-June, 1917, there were conducted some demonstrations in night firing.

The School of Musketry exercises were as follows:

OBJECT OF EXERCISES.

To compare the relative value in night firing of firing with various auxiliaries and of firing without such aid.

SITUATION.

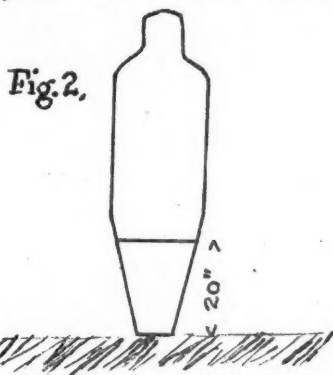
A company has been assigned a certain section in a defensive line. The foreground has been cleared, obstacles prepared, and annunciators installed to give warning of hostile approach. A night attack is impending.

ARRANGEMENTS.

Sixty-four rifles (one company of infantry) properly organized to constitute the firing line, ten rounds per rifle to be fired.

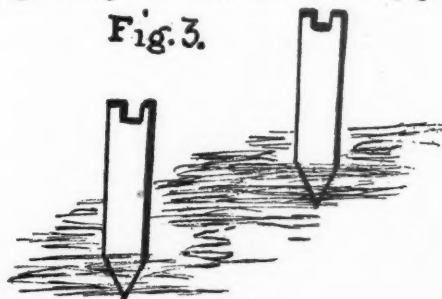
EXERCISE NO. 1.

It is assumed that the enemy will attack in fairly dense formation, *i. e.*, that his second and third lines will follow close up. To represent this three rows of figure M-Targets, sixty-four targets one yard between centers in each row are placed in



column formation, one row at each 300, 350 and 400 yards respectively.

When fire opens it may be expected that the attack will lie down and begin to dig. A white horizontal stripe twenty inches



above the bottom is drawn on the target to represent the height of a man working in the prone position.

In this exercise the auxiliary aiming target above described was used. Sighting rests, a pair for each rifle, were

placed in daylight by each man who was to use them and who actually tested rested sighting his rifle through them.

EXERCISE NO. 2.

This exercise was similar to No. 1, except that all auxiliaries were removed.

EXERCISE NO. 3.

Two powerful moveable (hardly "mobile" in the present accepted sense) searchlights borrowed from the Corregidor harbor defenses were used. Sixty-four M-Targets similar to those used in Exercise No. 1, were similarly placed in one row at 500 yards.

Exercises Nos. 1 and 3 were each fired two times, one each on each of two nights. Exercise No. 2 was fired once only.

Exercise with the non-commissioned officers' class, though similar in some respects, were materially different.

Twenty-five men constituted the firing line, each firing ten rounds.

The men firing were different in each exercise and cumulative experience was eliminated. Twenty-five M-Targets, marked as in the previous exercises, were placed on the 200 yard parapet. The range was 200 yards in all the exercises.

EXERCISE NO. 1.

Sighting rests were placed in daylight and tested for direction, the men who were to use them placing their rifles in them.

EXERCISE NO. 2.

Fired in darkness, no auxiliaries being used.

EXERCISE NO. 3.

Two trench searchlights, of the model recently developed by the engineers were used to light the targets, the firing line being in darkness.

The results obtained in both sets of demonstrations were as set forth in the following table:

	No. of Exer- cise.	Range	No. of Tar- gets.	Shots Fired.	Entire Figure							
					Hits.	H.	Figs. hit.	D.	Daylight Expectan			
									Hits.	H.	Figs. hit.	
MUSKETRY SCHOOL	1											
	1st Series	300 350 400	64 M 64 M 64 M	{ 640 }	99 76 58	15.5 11.9 9.1	44 35 26	68.8 54.7 40.6	180 166 155	27.8 25.9 24.3	60 59 58	
	Totals		192 M		233	36.5	105	Av. 54.7	501	78	177	A
	2d Series	300 350 400	64 M 64 M 64 M	{ 640 }	91 86 50	14.2 10.3 7.8	44 31 27	68.8 48.4 42.2	do	do	do	
	Totals		192 M		207	32.3	102	Av. 53.1				
	2											
		300 350 400	64 M 64 M 64 M	{ 640 }	39 28 14	6.1 4.4 2.2	23 24 11	35.9 37.5 17.2	do	do	do	
	Totals		192 M		81	12.8	58	Av. 30.2				
	3											
	1st Series	500	64 M	640	103	16.4	46	71.9	142	22.1	55	
N. C. O. SCHOOL	2d Series	500	64 M	640	130	20.3	51	79.7	do	do	do	
	1	200	25 M	250	56	22.4	19	76.0	80	32	24	
	2	200	25 M	250	30	12.0	15	60.0	do	do	do	
	3	200	25 M	250	72	28.8	23	90.0	do	do	do	

ABBREVIATIONS: { H=% Hits: Shots fire
D=% Figs. Hits: T

RESULTS.

Entire Figure								Below Horizon			
Its.	H.	Figs. hit.	D.	Daylight Expectancy				Hits.	H.	Figs. hit.	D.
				Hits.	H.	Figs. hit.	D.				
99	15.5	44	68.8	180	27.8	60	93.8	32	5.0	22	34.4
76	11.9	35	54.7	166	25.9	59	92.5	10	1.7	9	14.1
58	9.1	26	40.6	155	24.3	58	91.1	8	1.25	7	10.9
233	36.5	105	Av. 54.7	501	78	177	Av. 92.4	50	7.97	38	Av. 19.8
91	14.2	44	68.8	do	do	dc	do	25	3.9	18	28.1
66	10.3	31	48.4					10	1.7	10	15.6
50	7.8	27	42.2					5	.85	5	7.8
207	32.3	102	Av. 53.1					40	6.45	33	Av. 17.2
			*								
39	6.1	23	35.9	do	do	do	do	11	1.7	10	15.6
28	4.4	24	37.5					6	.9	6	9.4
14	2.2	11	17.2					4	.6	3	4.7
81	12.8	58	Av. 30.2					21	3.2	19	Av. 9.9
103	16.4	46	71.9	142	22.1	55	89	28	4.4	22	3.4
130	20.3	51	79.7	do	do	do	do	30	4.7	21	3.3
56	22.4	19	76.0	80	32	24	96.1	12	4.8	8	3.2
30	12.0	15	60.0	do	do	do	do	9	3.6	8	3.2
72	28.8	23	90.0	do	do	do	do	9	3.6	7	2.8

ABBREVIATIONS: { H=% Hits: Shots fired. P=Area below horizon
D=% Figs. Hits: Total No. Figs. M=Area M—target ent

Low Horizontal Line			P. M.	REMARKS.
D.	Daylight Expectancy			
	Hits.	Figs. hit.		
34.4 14.1 10.9	90 84 74	48 47 43	40	Using auxiliary aiming target and sighting rests (2 per rifle.) Three rows 64 M-targets 1 yd. between centers, placed in column formation at ranges as here given. Battle sight used. 64 rifles in firing line. Average shots. "Daylight expectancy" computed separately for targets at each range as if all shots had been aimed only at that target, with center of impact at center of target. Rate 10 shots per minute.
Av. 19.8	248	138		
28.1 15.6 7.8	do	do	do	
Av. 17.2				
15.6 9.4 4.7	do	do	do	Exercise the same as No. 1, except that all auxiliaries were removed and all the firing took place in darkness.
Av. 9.9				
3.4	53	36	do	Targets illuminated by two high power searchlights. Battle sight 64 rifles in firing line. Average shots. Rate 7.5 shots per minute.
3.3	do	do		
3.2	46.3	21	do	Twenty-five rifles in firing line, good shots. Sighting rests (2 per rifle) used. Rate of fire: Normal.
3.2	do	do	do	Same as in 1st (preceding) exercise except sighting rests removed. Entire new personnel in firing line.
2.8	do	do	do	Same as preceding exercise except targets illuminated by 2 trench searchlights. Entire new personnel in firing line.

Low horizontal line.
—target entire.

COMMENTS.

These exercises were too limited to admit of universal generalizations. Nevertheless some interesting facts pertinent to these particular exercises were observed.

There was, of course, no accurate sighting. Sights were laid down flat and pointed in the general direction of the targets.

The firing took place on the A Range over which the majority of the men had previously fired the regular season's target practice. As they knew all the landmarks the result would be to increase the percentage of hits when firing in total darkness without auxiliaries over what such hits would be when firing over unknown terrain.

The lower or prone portion of the target is about forty per cent. of the area of the entire target. This portion of the target should properly have received forty per cent. of hits. To the contrary, this did not obtain once, the average being about twenty-one and five-tenths per cent. The known tendency in battle and at night is to over shoot. The figures here presented accentuate the fact. A man lying down has also a vulnerability in depth which these exercises would not show.

The exercises with targets placed in column formations, fifty yards between echelons, plainly indicate the vulnerability of such formations under fire at night.

The relative value of auxiliaries is shown by the following comparison, the figures being taken from the preceding table:

		ACTUAL HITS.					
Range yards	Computed daylight expectancy %	Illuminated target		Using sighting rests.		No. Auxl. used.	
		Hits. %	Figs. hit. %	Hits. %	Figs. hit. %	Hits. %	Figs. hit. %
200.....	32	28.8	92	22.4	76	12	60
300.....	27.8			14.9	68.8	6.1	36
350.....	25.9			11.1	51.6	4.4	37.5
400.....	24.3			8.5	41.4	2.2	17.1
500.....	22.1	18.3	75.8				

With fair illumination of the targets the night results were not far from the computed daylight expectancy. If a means could be devised of illuminating the rifle sights without increasing the visibility to the enemy, the efficiency of fire on illuminated targets would be further increased.

Other auxiliaries, so far as the effectiveness of fire is concerned, may be all placed together in one class. Their combined effect is less than that obtained when firing on an illuminated target, but usually many times greater than that obtained when no auxiliaries are used.

Firing without auxiliaries is at 200 yards only two-thirds as effective as fire on an illuminated target at 500 yards. At 400 yards this class of fire almost reaches the vanishing point of effectiveness, registering only two and two-tenths per cent. hits against the standing target of six-tenths of one per cent. against the prone. These results, obtained by firing under the most favorable circumstances will be further reduced in actual practice. The futility of such unaimed unobserved fire except at the shortest ranges is apparent.

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SOME NOTES ON FORAGE.*

BY LIEUTENANT COLONEL SAMUEL G. JONES, THIRTEENTH CAVALRY.

THE food of the horse may be broadly divided into two general classes, both of which are necessary components of a balanced ration:

1. Concentrates: The grains and substitutives.
2. Roughage: The hays, fodder, and similar foods, to give bulk for distension of the digestive tract, and to act as a mechanical aid in splitting up other foods, preventing the tendency of food to pack, and to thus render easier, the access of digestive juices to the mass.

SOME FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF FEEDING.

Function of Food.—The functions of food are: To repair waste, to promote growth, to furnish heat and energy, to store up or lay on fat. Only the digestible portions of the food are available for these purposes. The nutrients that serve these functions are: Protein, carbohydrates, and fat. A definite amount of each, varying slightly with infinite conditions of use, (temperament and condition of animal, health, idleness, work, fatigue, climate, weather, etc.), is required to insure the most economical performance of these functions—a shortage or an excess of any one of these constituents meaning an unbalanced ration, and a waste, both potential and actual. Often, the wrong concentrate is used because its composition and function of its nutrients is not clearly understood. "It is

*These notes have been compiled from many sources, but principally from "Animal Management" (British Service), "Feeding Horses" (Dr. Cochel), "Feeds and Feeding" (Henry), "The Rasp" (1914), and from reports of our military attaches abroad.

They are especially interesting at this time, in view of the probability of sending many horses and mules abroad, where a forage ration different from that fed in the United States, will oftentimes prove necessary.

well then to note what part each of these nutrients plays in maintaining these functions." The results of experience and research show certain chemical constituents in proper, but varying proportions are necessary to fulfill these functions.

BROAD CHEMICAL CLASSIFICATION OF FOODS.

Protein.—Protein (the essential flesh making constituent) is that part of food, rich in *nitrogen* and which is utilized by the animal body in the production of muscle, tendons, hide, hoof, hair, blood and constructive tissues of the internal organs; in short, it is essential for the growth and repair of waste tissue of the body.

The other nutrients—carbohydrates and fat—contain no nitrogen and are spoken of as non-nitrogenous nutrients. No substance that does not contain nitrogen can be substituted for, or converted into, protein. Hence, the absolute necessity for a certain amount of protein material in a horse's ration. Such feeds as cottonseed meal, linseed meal, peas, bran, shorts, alfalfa, clover and cowpea hay, contain comparatively high proportions of digestible protein.

Results of Deficiency or Excess of Protein.—Rations rich in protein generally stimulate the appetite and increase all secretions from the body. Of all food constituents its presence in insufficient quantities is most quickly noticeable. Properly balanced foods should contain this constituent in such proportion as can be properly digested and will keep the muscle and other organs at their best.

Beyond this, as when fed in considerably excessive quantities, for any length of time, the result is disastrous. Foods containing them in excess are said to be "heating"—a familiar example being the foods above mentioned and, in a lesser degree, corn.

CARBOHYDRATES AND FATS.

Carbohydrates.—Fat, heat, energy producing constituents—including the natural fats, in the food, starch, sugar and cellulose in the form of crude or woody fibre. Their uses are mainly to produce the necessary heat for maintaining the body temperature, to provide sufficient energy to allow work

to be done without muscular waste and to store up in the body certain quantity of fat as a reserve to draw on in need.

Flesh and fat forming constituents overlap in a measure and too sharp a distinction cannot be drawn between them, the essential functions of the former are to build up and maintain the organs and muscles of the body to carry out the process of digestion and make use of its results, the latter to provide the heat and energy for the muscles and organs to work with.

Some of the *carbohydrates* may be converted into fat and some may be burned to supply heat or muscular energy. Corn, barley, oats, wheat, Kaffir corn, and the various hays and fodders contain high proportions of digestible carbohydrates.

Fats.—Fat is found in various feeds in smaller amounts than either protein or carbohydrates. It is either stored up as fat, or burned to furnish heat and energy. Cottonseed meal and linseed meal are rich in fat, cottonseed meal containing about three times as much digestible fat as corn.

The *essential* functions of the several nutrients are distinct—minor functions overlap. Heat and muscular energy are produced mainly from the carbohydrates, secondarily from fats and lastly, to a certain extent, from protein substances. One pound of *digestible* fat is worth about 2.24 times as much as one pound of *digestible* protein or one pound of digestible carbohydrates in the production of heat and muscular energy. While the essential functions of the several nutrients are separate and distinct their minor functions overlap, and too clearly defined distinctions cannot be drawn between them. For example, a muscle building food may serve to also produce some fat, and supply a limited amount of ash and yet not give the good results of a fully balanced food.

Result of Excess or Deficiency in Carbohydrates, etc., and in Fats.—When excessive amounts of carbohydrates are fed there are marked disturbances in digestion. If insufficient quantities are fed, emaciation, lack of vigor and spirit result.

When excessive amounts of fats are fed the bowels become too loose and if insufficient amounts are supplied, constipation results.

When carbohydrates and fats are supplied in slight excess of immediate needs of the body, they are stored up as fats.

The fibrous and woody elements are chemically closely allied to the carbohydrates. These comparatively indigestible materials exist in varying proportions in all vegetable foods, varying from two per cent. in corn to forty per cent. in straw. They are notwithstanding their comparatively small nutritive value essential components of the ration of herbivorous animals.

Cellulose Fibrous and Woody Elements.—The fibre serves the purpose as a mechanical aid in giving bulk to the ration in needed extension of intestines, etc., as well as loosening up of mass, preventing compacting and thus permitting readier access of digestive juices to the food to be acted upon, as well as regulating the consistency of the faeces.

Ash or Mineral Matter—Bone Making Elements.—These are mineral elements usually termed "Salts," compounds of lime, magnesia, phosphorous, soda, potash sulphur, etc., and are particularly essential to growing animals. They are constant constituents of the blood and tissues of the body as well as the bone, aid in digestion and by combining with substances which might be injurious, eliminate them from the body.

They are particularly abundant in grass, and hay, produced on limestone soils. A considerable supply of ash is found in all coarse food stuffs, hence this constituent does not cause so much concern as do protein, carbohydrates, and fat. In a ration largely grain, attention must be given to insuring a supply of ash.

Water forms a considerable portion of all food, even in those considered dry, the percentage varying from about ten per cent. in grains, through a large amount in green forage, to over ninety per cent. in tubers.

"A good food for a working animal should contain the above constituents in such proportions that the greatest possible percentage of nourishment can be extracted from it, and a sufficient amount and bulk can be consumed to satisfy all requirements, viz: maintain the body temperature—appease the appetite—and produce the required work, without upsetting the digestion or occasioning loss of flesh. If no one food will answer all these demands then the ration should be

arranged so that its several components will do so in the aggregate, and such foods are usually described as '*well balanced*.' From a well balanced ration the animal can extract the largest possible amount of nutriment, though from no food, however suitable, is it possible for the total amount of its nutritive value to be absorbed by digestion."

"At any point of observation we find the ration for the horse usually composed of only one or two kinds of grain and a limited number of coarse dry fodders, the feeder insisting that these are practically all that can be given this animal with safety and economy." One need not go far, however, to find the list more or less changed, sometimes entirely so, yet with the same local claim as to superiority and economy.

The almost universal feeds for horses in this country are: In the Northern States, oats and timothy hay; in the South, corn as a concentrate and dry corn leaves for roughage; on the Pacific Coast crushed barley is the common grain, while the hay comes from the wild oat, barley or wheat plant.

Passing to other countries there is an interesting array of dietary articles for the horse: "In some sterile countries, horses are forced to subsist on dried fish, and even vegetable mold; in Arabia on milk, meat-balls, eggs, broth, etc.; in Persia and Mexico, barley is a common food for good horses; in some parts of India, balls the size of billard balls are made up with salt, pepper, other spices, flour and butter and are thrust down the animal's throat and grasses or hay fed as roughage; in the tropics, barley, corn, guinea corn, sugar cane tops, molasses, sugar and bamboo shoots are fed; in France, Italy and Spain besides the usual grasses, hays and grains, the leaves of limes, the tops of acacia and the seeds of the carob tree are used.

THE CONCENTRATES AND SUBSTITUTES.

From among this variety of concentrates, the experiences of the better civilized nations have shown that oats are generally speaking the best of grains for horses.

Weight of oats vary greatly from as low as twenty-five pounds per bushel for very inferior, to over fifty pounds in superior. The average weight of the samples furnished the

Army in 1913 was thirty-six pounds per bushel. The nutritive value of these different oats furnished, varied greatly. While the weight of the oats per bushel is not the sole test, in general the heavier the weight of oats per bushel the greater its nutritive value.

The characteristics of good and inferior oats, and the principle defects in oats, or means used to conceal such defects, are described in many treatises and are simply mentioned here. Such are: Foxy, kiln dried, mustiness, mouldiness, sprouting, rat-tainted, and dirty oats.

Sometimes clipped oats are considered among the defectives. Clipping is simply the removal of excess beard, generally by rapid passing of oats over a revolving wire brush or screen. Clipped oats are easily detected by appearance of the altered oat with squared-end and the adhering of a large quantity of the removed beard to the hand when plunged deep into the sack. Clipping is not essentially an actual defect as a shorter, plumper appearing oat with more weight per bushel is obtained by the buyer. The fact that it was thought advisable to subject oats to this process indicates, however, that the sample was not of a very high class originally.

Feeding Oats.—Oats are the safest grain to feed horses. The latter are able to consume and digest a larger quantity of them than any other grain, without special preparation, and without their digestion being upset. This safety is due in no small measure to the presence of the oat-hull, which causes a given weight of grain to possess such volume that the animal rarely suffers from gorging, as the digestive tract cannot hold a quantity of oat grain sufficient to produce serious disorders. In this regard oats resembles bran and is in contrast with corn. With horses at *heavy* work the amount which they may be fed is practically as much as the animal cares to consume, provided a suitable quantity of roughage is included in the ration. This amount of grain will vary from twelve to sixteen pounds per day. For animals at *moderate* work an average of ten pounds per day suffices, and working horses, when rested for any length of time may receive four to six pounds per day. If the animal has poor teeth, from old age, etc., is hard pressed for time, or eats hurriedly from natural greediness, or for fear that his

neighbors may rob him, as is especially the case in a large body of horses fed in an open stable, he is inclined to swallow the grain ration without proper mastication. In such cases it is of decided advantage, when practicable, to bruise the oats. The grain should not be crushed flat, but simply enough to insure that the husk of each grain is split. Otherwise the oats are best fed whole to mature horses with good teeth.

The boiling or steaming of oats is not recommended, facilities are not generally available and the practice is more suitable to the needs of the hospital than the troop stable.

Recent experiments indicate that new oats are not as dangerous as generally supposed. They should, however, be fed with caution.

Some Substitutes for Oats.—In large parts of North, South and Central America, India, and South Africa, Indian corn is the staple grain. It was practically the sole grain obtainable for horses during the French intervention in the Republic of Mexico from 1861-67.

In the chase after the bandit Villa and his followers into Chihuahua and Durango, in 1916, history repeated itself. Corn was the only grain the native inhabitants had, and they possessed so little of this grain that American troops, in the interest of humanity, had to limit the demands of themselves and animals to the barest necessities. For days at a time, parched corn was the sole food obtainable for man and beast.

In the watered valleys of the state of Chihuahua, and Sonora (and possibly in all northern Mexico), the native grasses grown in abundance and cure on the stalk; and unless ruined by the winter rains or snows (very infrequently the case), they furnish very palatable and nutritious natural hay. The grazing is ideal for the raising of stock, and for an invading cavalry force would materially supply any deficiency in the regular supplies of roughage.

Containing as it does, a small amount of mineral or bone-building matter, corn is unsuitable for the rearing of young stock. It is richer in digestible carbohydrates and in fats, than is oats. Carbohydrates produce, as is well known, a large amount of heat in the process of digestion, which fact explains the common observation that corn when fed in quantity

with prairie hay, is too "heating" to be fed to working horses in *hot* weather. It is at its best in cold weather.

There are two general varieties of corn—the dent and the flint. In both varieties, the grain should be dry, of reasonable size, of a bright color, and quite hard and free from dirt. When bitten, it should taste sweet, and should have no distinct odor. The average weight of shelled corn is fifty-six pounds to the bushel, and seventy to seventy-eight ears weighing about seventy pounds, when well dried, will make fifty-six pounds or a bushel of shelled corn. One pound of shelled corn equals six-tenths of a quart.

Corn travels badly in bulk, once it is shelled from the cob, and is very liable to get "heated" during long voyages or in closed storage. It then becomes darker in color, softer to the feel and acquired a pungent odor. It may also suffer from mustiness or mouldiness. In all cases where quality is under suspicion, the points of the grain should be closely examined, as this is the spot where the damage is most easily detected. It is liable to be attacked by weevil.

Where its use is general and it is fed as the sole grain ration, it is customary to feed it on the cob.

Ear corn is safer to feed than shelled corn, as the grain keeps best on the cob, the horse eats corn on the cob more slowly and chews the grain more completely. One hundred pounds of corn shelled, mixed with 125 pounds oats has a greater theoretical food value than 225 pounds of clear oats. When fed as the sole grain fourteen to eighteen ears of corn will constitute a ration. By horses accustomed to its use it may be consumed whole without ill effects; but where practicable it should be crushed as the grain is hard, difficult to masticate and takes a comparatively long time to digest. It is best fed not whole and as the sole grain component, but crushed and mixed with other concentrates, as with oats, with small additions of crushed beans and peas. Corn fed with oats should not replace more than one-third to one-half the oat ration.

The change from oats to corn should occur very *gradually*, the transition period lasting from two to four weeks according to the extent to which corn is to replace the oats.

Owing to the fact that this grain is very palatable to the horse and is slowly digested, thorough mastication is of paramount necessity. The admixture of chaff, or a small amount of cut hay (not less than one inch lengths) to the grain to insure proper mastication, is particularly demanded.

Since it is a slowly digested food, horses should *not* be watered until a considerable time has elapsed after feeding corn.

New corn may produce indigestion. The dent varieties having more starch, are softer and more easily masticated, though no more nutritious than the flint varieties.

Corn meal alone, is a sodden substance in the animals' stomach, and while in this condition is not readily attacked by the digestive juices, and should be diluted or extended with something of a light character. Bran serves well for this purpose, because of its lightness and cooling effect, as well as because of the protein and mineral matter it furnishes. It is not recommended except for emergency use.

Corn oil meal and corn oil cake, by products of corn utilized in glucose breakfast foods and other manufactured products are rich in protein and should not be fed in large quantity but mixed with other grain feeds. They are not recommended.

BARLEY.

This is one of the most widely cultivated cereals, growing from seventy degrees north latitude to the sub-tropical zones. Formerly one of the chief bread plants of many ancient nations, it is now utilized principally in brewing and stock feeding. In this country, as a feed for animals, its use is confined almost wholly to the Pacific Slope, where corn and oats do not flourish in equal degree. In the East it is a general horse food. The Arabs maintain their horses almost exclusively on this grain, using it unground. The Berbers of North Africa use it likewise with excellent results.

Characteristics of Barley.—"The grain should be plump and short, quite hard, with a thin wrinkled skin and small, fine, but not shrunken ends; its color should generally be a pale golden and it should be free from any distinctive odor.

Specimens grown in hot countries are generally smaller than those from temperate climates." (*Animal Management.*)

It should weigh about fifty-four pounds to the bushel.

Feeding Barley.—With horses native to the soil, where it is grown, it is frequently fed whole and as the sole grain ration, but not always with impunity. For all others it must be specially prepared, or it rapidly gives rise to indigestion and colic. Since fifteen per cent. of the total weight of this grain is closely adhering indigestible hull, it is best fed *parched*, boiled, or crushed by passage between rollers, thus splitting the hull without crushing the kernel as the finely ground meal forms a pasty unpleasant mass with the saliva. This pasty condition, however, can be partially remedied by the addition of wheat, bran, or corn meal to the barley meal.

Barley is higher in digestible protein than oats and considerably higher than in corn. It contains higher percentage of the carbohydrates than oats and less than corn. Barley has less oil than oats or corn. Barley replacing oats should be fed in the ratio of thirteen—twelve pounds.

By-Products.—Dried brewers' grains, pound for pound for oats, has been successfully fed. They are much relished by the horse. "They should be fresh and given without delay, as they rapidly sour." The German War Department has abandoned their use, and they are not recommended as a general, but solely as an *emergency* food.

RYE.

Rye is used to some extent in northwestern Europe as a horse food, but no records of its use exist in this country. Rye does not differ materially from wheat in composition. It is a distinctly inferior horse food. In countries where it is so fed, it is said to be coarsely ground or cooked and mixed with chaff. In large quantities it is said to cause diarrhoea. If cooked, it should be fed promptly, as it rapidly ferments.

This grain is liable to suffer from the growth of the *ergot fungus*, which may be recognized as a small body about one-half inch long of a purplish black color. As a horse food in the field it should not, except under pressure of necessity be fed alone as a whole ration, but mixed with other concentrates available.

In Germany two to four pounds are fed to work horses daily together with oats or other concentrates. Rye should not constitute more than one-fourth of the grain ration.

RICE.

Palay or paddy, (unhusked rice) is extremely indigestible for animals unaccustomed to its use; for those constantly fed on it, it is a serviceable grain and keeps them in workable condition. It is improved by being crushed. It is best fed, not as the sole grain ration, but in lieu of a portion of the oats. The best mixture appears to be five pounds of oats and four pounds of palay per day, per animal (horse). Rice must be used with the husks on, as the woody fibre is needed to give bulk.

It is poor in protein and rich in carbohydrates. The amount necessary for a full ration is somewhat greater than oats.

WHEAT.

Shrunken and poor quality of wheat grain, during large crop years is now largely fed to farm animals in the West.

Wheat is generally regarded as a very unsuitable food for horses. Compared with corn it carries a higher percentage of carbohydrates and protein. It is reputed a colic producer.

It is stated wheat has been given whole up to seven and one-half pounds without ill effects; mixed with corn, oats or bran it is superior to either alone, for weak horses. It is essential that the grain be quite dry as it is otherwise extremely indigestible; it should, if possible, be crushed or *parched* and mixed with some other concentrate, or with chaffed hay to insure mastication.

Flour is constantly given in India as a nourishing food to animals, undergoing severe exertion. Low grade, "dark feeding," or "red dog" flour, usually contains the germ of the whole wheat and because of this, is rich in protein and fat. Such flour is of high food value for hard-worked horses.

During mastication, wheat and flour adhere to the gums, forming a pasty mass. This can be prevented by admixture of bran, corn meal, cut straw or hay or some such substance with the wheat or flour.

Bread has been fed to London cab horses with economy and success, the only drawback being that many loaves were consumed by the workmen. Coachmen of Paris feed brown bread to their horses, and this food is given in countries where hay is dear. To prevent stealing, it has been recommended that straw be mixed with the dough before baking.

Stale bread from bakeries has been fed to horses at the ratio of one pound of bread to two pounds of oats. But it is usually fed as a luxury rather than a regular ration, or oftentimes as a supplemental ration from damaged or surplus flour. Wheat and its products are to be regarded only as an emergency ration when no better ration offers, or to supplement a shortage of regular supplies.

A ration of two parts of cracked wheat to one part by weight of bran, together with the usual hay ration, has been successfully fed to hard-working horses.

WHEAT BRAN.

Bran should be dry, and sweet, flaky, free from lumps—the color varying with the character of wheat from which it is divided.

Chewed, it should not taste gritty and when the hand is plunged into it, it should be perceptibly covered with flour on withdrawal. It is infrequently adulterated by an admixture of barley or rice hulls and sand. Close examination will detect the hulls, and a hand full placed in water, the sand.

Under the influence of damp, bran becomes sour and lumpy; this is its commonest defect.

Bran contains a high percentage of ash, protein and woody fibre. It rarely contains sufficient proportion of flour to be considered a work producing food, but is used as an adjunct to the grain ration, in order to ensure mastication, increase bulk and to mix with heating foods. Given as a mash, it is supposed to be laxative and in the British Service is a pretty constant item of the Saturday night and pre-holiday ration.

"A bran mash should be made by scalding two to three pounds of bran in a bucket with boiling water, which is then covered and allowed to stand until cool enough to eat; the

addition of a little salt makes it palatable." (*Animal Management*.)

The bucket used must be kept clean, as the bran mash ferments rapidly.

A refreshing and quickly made partial substitute for bran mash, can be made by putting a couple of handfulls of bran in tepid water and permitting the horse to drink.

The French Army in 1911, after most careful and prolonged experiments in feeding bran in various ways, issued an order very materially changing the practices as to bran feeding long followed in that Army.

Simple bran as a substitute forage, is replaced by a bran mixture, known as "improved bran." A summary of this mixture which is worthy of consideration, follows:

Improved bran can be used for replacing oats three to two by weight. Improved bran is a bran mixture consisting of bran, seconds, and thirds in the following proportions—bran one-half, seconds one-fourth, thirds one-fourth. It must come from milling of wheat, and should be fresh, odorless and sweet to the taste. It may be bought mixed, or can be supplied separately and mixed by the troops using it.

The following instructions will govern the use of this bran: In the dry state it absorbs its weight of water. Swallowed in this state, it augments in volume while in the stomach, due to the fluids it find there, and produces indigestion.

Fed *dry* to a hungry horse it is very dangerous. Mixed dry with oats, bran interferes with the mastication of the grain. The loss in mastication is proportional to the amount of bran in the mixture. The horse eats proportionally much quicker, mixtures containing a high percentage of bran; he gets the impression of a food already finely divided, needing little chewing, and he bolts it.

In mixtures poor in bran, the latter on the contrary reveals its presence and produces a slower mastication.

Bran *wetted* and mixed with oats produces a mastication of the latter still more imperfect than when mixed dry. The time taken to eat it is reduced, for the animal gets the impression of a food not only already finely divided but insalivated

as well. This method of feeding bran is a permanent danger to the digestive organs.

Bran fed alone, either wet, merely damp, but well mixed up, or as a thin mash, is very refreshing as it excites the horse to take in a large quantity of liquid.

From the above it results:

1. That the feeding of *dry* bran is prohibited.
2. That it is advantageous to mix a small quantity of dry bran not over one-tenth, with the oats of a horse which plays with his grain and does not eat freely for any reason.
3. That the best way to feed bran is separately, either as a mash or dampened.

Supplied to horses once or twice a week in the form of a "mash" made with scalding water, bran proves a mild, beneficial laxative.

Used continuously, the animal's system becomes accustomed to it, and the laxative property is less marked.

BEANS AND PEAS.

Characteristics.—Beans should be hard, dry, sweet to taste, light brown in color. Peas should be dry and sound, not of a dark color. Both beans and peas are very liable to weevil. A bushel of either beans or peas should weigh about sixty-four pounds. The varieties distinguished by their color, are blue, white, grey, etc. Among the common varieties of leguminous seeds (peas and beans) distinguished by name and that are available in the United States, Canada and Mexico may be mentioned, the northern field pea, and cowpea, the Soja (Soy) bean and the horse bean. Some varieties of beans and peas cannot be fed. The "Java" bean is reported as unsuitable, as it possesses poisonous qualities.

New beans are indigestible, and they should not be used until they are a year old, with increasing age, however, they depreciate and are liable to become infested with weevil, and darker in color. Peas wet when harvested or stacked, become black. Peas and beans are considered the nutritious of the foods given to animals, as they possess an exceedingly larger proportion of flesh forming elements; but owing to this fact

they are very *heating* and *cannot be given in large quantities* under any circumstances, and are not advisable at all, unless the animals are subjected to long continued or sudden and severe labor, or are undergoing exposure. They should never be fed as the sole concentrate, and never under the above conditions. The amount which it is advisable to give in addition to other forage should in *no case exceed four to five pounds*; and they should *always be split or crushed* on account of the extreme toughness of their husks, but not ground fine as it leads to waste. Feeding of the legumes is less dangerous in a cold than in a warm climate.

These legumes ground, mixed with cornmeal, ground oats, middlings, etc., have in certain localities proved a satisfactory and economical substitute for *not exceeding* one-half the usual grain allowance.

All small, hard grains such as wheat, barley, rye, kaffir corn, millet, the legumes, beans and peas, should always be rolled or parched to open the tough husk.



NOTES ON CAVALRY EQUIPMENT.

The Editor:

COLONEL RHODES' contribution under the above title in the July number of the JOURNAL tempts me to submit two letters on the subject which I found with the papers of Lieutenant General Chaffee, while selecting data to be embraced in a volume on his life and services. One of the most valuable attributes of the CAVALRY JOURNAL, of which I am glad to say I have a complete set, is the vast amount of historical matter contained in its issues. It seems very appropriate that the views contained in these letters on equipment from the pens of two officers of life long experience in the cavalry should be preserved in permanent form in the pages of the JOURNAL. I am very familiar with General Chaffee's service, not only through a friendship of forty year's duration, but by reason of a recent study of his career from the documentary side, and I think his experience of march and battle is second to that of no one who ever held a commission in our army. There were many able young cavalymen in our service at the close of the Civil War. With Merritt, Custer, Wilson and Mackenzie, easily in the first flight, among the juniors none were regarded with higher esteem than Chaffee and Wirt Davis.

Out of much counsel there will come light when there arises some young officer with talent for analysis and energy to press his conclusions against inertia until he awakens a demand for correct action. Certainly the cavalry has no legitimate complaint that its suggestions for improvement go unheeded. Never in our history have would be inventors had such patient hearings and prompt experimentation of their plans as have come from the bureaus, especially the Ordnance Department, in recent years. It should always be borne in mind that generations are apt to travel in circles after their forebears, and that every supposed new idea is not necessarily an original one.

The Ordnance Bureau has had to deal with many inventors whose suggestions are not new. Many inventions are basically wrong in principle, while some without mechanical defect or violation of principle are not improvements on present or past systems. The establishment of perpetual motion still tempts some men with mechanical turn of mind to become inventors.

WILLIAM H. CARTER,
Major General, Retired.

AUGUST 12, 1910.

Col. E. J. McCLELLAND,
President, Cavalry Equipment Board,
Rock Island Arsenal, Illinois.

DEAR COLONEL:

Your letter of July 7th was not delivered to me until the 18th, an unusually long time on the way, but really a short time in comparison with the number of days I have delayed in making reply. I have not had time to give the subjects you refer to, very serious consideration. When one finds fault with the soldier's equipment, he ought to come forward with a remedy which can be demonstrated an improvement.

Horse Equipment.—I do not suppose our cavalry officers propose to abandon the McClellan saddle. There is nothing to substitute, and, besides I understand serious effort has been made by the Ordnance Department during quite recent years, to shape the bars to fit the average horse's back as near as possible. Seemingly, this is all that can be done to remove objections to the McClellan type of saddle. But I still hear complaints about sore backs, and if not as many as formerly, a good many show up on nearly every long march. The bars of the saddle are so narrow, that the back gets all the pounding; the ribs of the horse afford no support, on the principle of the *Aparejo*—the best weight carrying saddle ever invented. Some day a cavalryman will work up a service saddle much like the pig-skin in its bearing surface on the back of the horse. It will be heavier than the McClellan, but this is a matter entitled

to no consideration whatever if half the sore backs made by the McClellan are eliminated.

In a private letter received before yours dated 7th of July, you asked whether the picket pin was used during the Civil War, and I answered in the affirmative. It was several years after the war that the herding of horses became general. No one dared herd in the Indian country until about 1875. Often at night, horses were put on half lariat, and the men laid down in a circle about them, to prevent Indians stampeding the horses by the sudden rush of a few horsemen among them. In time of war, when large cavalry forces are employed, I greatly doubt herding would be permitted. During the period of peace, I would do no more than prescribe *where to attach* the lariat during war period. Why annoy one generation of soldiers with a string and bob that will only be used possibly by the first, more likely by the second, generation that will succeed them.

I have often thought it bad practice to saddle—as is often done in our service at a gallop, so to speak. Also I think it bad practice to pack before saddling. In the first instance, insufficient care often results; in the second instance, weight over-masters the man, so he must heave or push on the load. You have often seen the horse shudder when the soldier comes down on him with the saddle packed.

The Saber.—Seemingly I have nothing of value to suggest as regards the horse equipment.

Since the introduction of the magazine rifle, theory has slain a million cavalry, more or less—all at least that have appeared on the battlefield in sight of the theorist. What is equally bad for the Saber: This same theory has rendered the spirit of our officers, which is necessary to support and make the saber effective in the hands of the men, as pulseless as the Ashes of Murat. We have no saber-men, worse still, we never will have when the sentiment is strongly unfriendly towards the saber. Unfortunately, the battlefields of the Civil War seldom, very, very rarely indeed, afforded opportunity for its use. The regular cavalrymen of 1860 were the best saber-men we ever had, and they, too few, dispersed and mis-employed, to make record of the saber skill that was in them. Best not pretend to a service that we will never be prepared to perform

efficiently. Eliminate the saber from the soldier's equipment, and our cavalry will nearer conform to fact, viz: Mounted Infantry additionally armed with the revolver. The saber abandoned, the charge as foragers when desirable, would substitute the charge in line with the saber; the latter would never be ordered, of course.

In the past, I have opposed the discard of the saber, but I apprehend the day is not distant when its use will be discontinued, and your Board is in position to decide the question now.

The Cavalry Pack.—For many years, there has been heard an outcry against the weight of the cavalry pack; just as there has been much protesting against the heavy burden of the foot-soldier. Everybody knows that both operate to seriously reduce the efficiency of the army at an important time, viz: in line of battle, after long marches for concentration in strategic positions, etc. It is under such conditions, that these overloads make recruits very rapidly for the quartermaster's depot for disabled horses, (sore backs), and the wagon trains become the rendezvous for an army of stragglers—exhausted men. In my opinion, there is but one remedy for a bad condition which the heavy pack is responsible for, and that is, *two* kits for the soldier:—one luxuries, to be always transported in wagons, the other necessities, to be always carried on the person and horse.

"War is Hell."—Let this observation of General Sherman be taken to mean nothing worse than undergoing rigorous personal discomfort for a few days at most, and it will be an easy matter, following an important theory of our Tariff law, to lighten the equipment on the person of the soldier for campaigning. A theory of the Tariff is to tax luxuries, and admit necessities free. Food, arms and ammunition, in portable shape are necessities; every other item pertaining to the soldier's kit as now made up, in the last analysis, belongs to the category of luxuries. We all admit the presence of the full kit with the soldier is desirable, but the admission does not solve the transportation problem, which, unsolved, is detrimental to the morale and efficiency of the army. Every soldier should have a roll, viz: Shelter-tent in which to confine his over-

coat, blanket, extra clothing, shoes, etc., all secured with shawl strap and plainly numbered. The roll should never exceed by more than two pounds, the uniform weight to be determined and announced in orders, for the articles specified for the kit. This roll to be always transported for the soldier.

If the soldier should be separated from the train and his roll for a few days, he might perhaps think—"War is Hell," but to remove somewhat his destitute condition, I would supply each man with a close-woven, water-proofed, poncho-style, all-wool blanket, good quality, and liberal dimensions. I have in mind the Indian who for years, as you know, has wrapped his blanket about him, and laid down to pleasant dreams—his saddle for a pillow. As between two articles—overcoat and poncho-style blanket, the latter will afford the most all-round comfort. Of course this blanket would be carried by the soldier, (packed on saddle or worn according to circumstances) and would be the only articles of his equipment so carried in addition to food, arms, ammunition, canteen and mess-kit. You will observe that the poncho-blanket, in conjunction with the roll, the soldier's bed, when he is with the train, will be two blankets and overcoat, instead of one blanket and overcoat, as now:—thus an added comfort. You will note, too, that in garrison, the poncho-blanket will cover him there. Thus his clothing allowance will not be increased, save the poncho-blanket should be better, finer quality, than the ordinary bed blanket, consequently would cost a little more.

Wagon Transportation.—Should the roll I have referred to, be transported for the soldier, the transportation should be definitely determined, and made as certain to the call of the troop commander, as is the troop or company to respond to the orders of superior authority; therefore, the troop and company wagon should be *properly lettered and numbered*, and the mules duly assigned; in other words, this wagon transportation should be under the care and control of the troop commander, and the troop and company wagoner should be the driver of the team. The four-mule wagon of the Quartermaster's Department will not properly answer the needs of a troop and company on campaign; indeed that outfit is a fraud, in my

opinion, on a serious campaign, if we except the flying ammunition columns.

The troop needs transportation for—(War strength):

100 rolls, each about 20 lbs.....	2,000 lbs.
Baggage, 3 officers each 150 lbs.....	450 "
Officers mess and stores.....	200 "
Office desk and 3 chairs.....	150 "
500 rations (5 days), 5 bls. per ration.....	2,500 "
Kitchen store, pans, pots, etc. (nested).....	400 "
Wall tents.....	300 "
	<hr/> 6,000 lbs.

For economical reasons, (6 mules *vs.* 8 mules), all this should be in one wagon, therefore a strong *capacious* wagon is best. Six heavy and strong mules will "negotiate" very readily on good country roads (8,000 lbs. [4 ton] wagon), 20 miles in eight to nine hours, and their power to do this should be taken to fix the allowance of wagon transportation for each company.

In a four-ton wagon, box especially made with overhang sides to increase packing space to van capacity, an additional 500 rations could be loaded, when the total weight would be 8,500 lbs. approximately.

If it is required, as should be the case, that a soldier on the march shall always carry two days' field rations on his person, the baggage wagon indicated (four-ton capacity) adequately provides for the wants of 100 men for a campaign of twelve days, and if average daily march be fifteen miles you have 180 miles as the distance traveled, without recourse to the army supply train. Naturally the troop commander should be made to suffer serious punishment if unauthorized loading—kind or quantity—should be found aboard. The employer may be held responsible for wrongs done by employees.

You will note that I do not suggest the intrenching tools be transported in the company baggage wagon. If these tools are not carried by the soldier, and I think they should not be until contact with the enemy, they should be transported in wagons, specially provided, and to march at suitable pace with the troops. Before any serious battle in life, there is

time for prayer and preparation! The commanding officer of the regiment should be personally responsible for the intrenching tools of his men.

The company transportation herein suggested you can, I think, figure as amounting to nothing more than a moderate premium paid by government to avoid far greater loss.

(a) You cannot successfully overload the American soldier. Easy to hand him the package, but he will throw away the overload and suffer stoppage of pay. Of course he will be resupplied, but in the meantime there is a period of decreased efficiency.

(b) An overloaded soldier is full of discontent, a grumbler, spiritless, often a straggler from necessity.

(c) A sore back horse, from overload, would have the attention of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals in any city of the United States.

I think the General Staff—it has much to do with overload and proper transportation—will admit that every pound of freight removed from backs of soldiers and horses for a day's march, will serve to enhance their physical condition when in line of battle after the march.

Wishing your Board very great success in its efforts to adjust, remedy or remove in appreciable degree, the cause for complaint, fully justified, which officers and soldiers make with regard to the pack, namely, that it is too heavy for man and horse.

Yours truly,

(Signed) ADNA R. CHAFFEE.

AUGUST 31, 1910.

General ADNA R. CHAFFEE,
United States Army,
987 Magnolia Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.

MY DEAR GENERAL:—

The Recorder of the Board, Captain Davis, has acknowledged already the receipt of your interesting letter of the 12th instant, but it is the wish of all members that something further than the routine acknowledgment be made to you. We do

not overlook the fact that your many excellent suggestions have long and wide experience behind them, and they are, therefore, doubly valuable to the Cavalry Board.

Referring somewhat in detail to the subjects you cover, I will indicate the present attitude of the Board, and if you find time later to further advise us, where you think we need advice, we will be most happy to hear from you.

Saddle.—The McClellan saddle has many excellent features all of which we hope to retain. The side bars, however, are too short, and do not conform in other respects to that portion of the back that should bear the load. We are now taking plaster casts of the backs of a number of horses, and we will know to a certainty the normal form that should be given to the bottom of the side bars. So far as we know this has never been done before, and hence we expect more accurate results than former saddle designers have obtained. If all backs were normal, our task in fitting the saddle would now be practically solved, but unfortunately they vary greatly and to meet this difficulty, we are experimenting with an adjustable device, placed between the side bars and under parts of the cantle and pommel. This will allow the side bars, automatically, to open or close when placed on the back, according as the horse has a broad or narrow back. The saddle we are trying promises well, but I will not claim more for it until thoroughly tested. We feel that every new part of the equipment, before final adoption, should be tested on many practice marches. Of one thing I am certain, viz: You will not be able to say that with our side bars the "ribs of the horse afford no support." However, some horses have short, sway backs, and some longitudinal adjustment of the side bars should be made, if practicable, for them. We have not yet found a solution for this difficulty.

Picket Pin.—Your statement that the picket pin was much used for grazing purposes during the Civil War, and that it is often difficult to find a stick to cut for a stake has made me hesitate about voting for its elimination. It looks as if we can put it to an additional use and thus make it acceptable to the many who oppose its retention. With a slightly changed, but still suitable form, it makes a satisfactory (detachable) handle

for a small intrenching spade. The latter, in a leather pocket, will hang on the off side below the side bar, back of the cantle and serve as a shield to hold the vertically hanging saber and picket pin—(shovel handle)—The English use a horse shoe in a leather pocket in the same way to carry the saber.

We agree with you entirely that it is an error to pack before saddling, and we will try and make our report so strong in this respect as to cause stringent regulations to be drawn to prevent it.

Saber.—I concur in your statement that we have no "saber-men," but we may have if the War Department will put the saber on the same level as the pistol and rifle in the matter of instruction, and offer reward for becoming expert in its use. If we give our best swordsmen additional pay, and send them on pleasant trips to big competitions, we may reasonably expect to see a new birth of swordmanship and of the spirit for charging in our cavalry. What would be our efficiency today with the pistol and rifle if we had never given the soldier any encouragement in their use except such as is occasionally found in the post on a "field day?"

Under our present regulations, at least, we never fire ball cartridges from pistols to the front, or while charging on the drill ground. There seems to be a general fear of shooting the horse in the head, or the friendly trooper on the right or left. Hence, with the pistol, we never practice a charge under war conditions. In meeting the enemy in a charge, each man will certainly try and shoot the opponent in his immediate front. Is it not too much to ask our men to deliver this fire for the *first* time as they close on the enemy? We certainly must be prepared to enact the part of mounted infantry, and for that reason, I stand for as good a rifle as is given to the foot soldier, but when thrown unexpectedly on the enemy's cavalry, there may be no time for the use of the rifle, and it would seem that the saber would be a more efficient arm than the pistol with which to meet his on-coming rush. Of course, the day is past when we can charge, with either pistol or saber, unbroken infantry, or a battery from the front, unless they be out of ammunition, in which case, we had better dismount and shoot them down.

The Cavalry Pack.—We are deeply impressed by your remarks about overloading, and had intended to fight for sufficient transportation. We wanted the two kits—"luxuries" and "necessaries," as you put the matter, and it is our intention to strengthen our argument by quoting your letter.

We note your comment about the overcoat and poncho style blanket. Our attention has been called previously to the latter, but we have not yet seen one that we thought would answer our purpose. Have you one that we might examine?

Your remarks about the necessary wagon transportation are so well thought out and given in such detail that they will materially assist us. I believe in your troop wagon, "properly lettered and numbered," and will get it if possible. Why not? The batteries have their wagons.

In the old days on campaigns and in long marches on the Northern Plains in the Sioux Country, I thought 4,500 pounds a good load for a six mule team. I see you assign 6,000 pounds on good roads, but will the roads often be "good" enough? I, too, prefer the old big wagon with six mules.

We had thought that the larger intrenching tools had better follow on pack mules rather than in wagons, because in this way they can be delivered wherever the horseman can go.

It is probable we will carry the rifle on the near side, back of the cantle and hanging from the side-bar—the small of the stock caught in a steel frog, with a good spring; the muzzle up. The general appearance will be that of a rifle on a man's back, but the weight will be on the horse. The rifle will be steadied by a ring attached to the cartridge belt, but will place no weight on the soldier, nor will it strike his back. If the soldier be thrown, the rifle pulls loose from the horse, and thus not only remains with the man but cannot drag him by clinging to the saddle. As the trooper dismounts, the rifle pulls from its saddle frog and hangs vertically, muzzle up, by a strap attached at the belt. This strap is too long to take up any weight in the mounted position. The trooper can walk about for short distances, adjust his saddle, etc., and mount with convenience with the rifle hung as described, from the belt. This furnishes by far the best method any of us have

seen for carrying the rifle. Its weight will be counterbalanced by the saber and picket pin on the off side. This change will require us to go to pommel pockets in place of the present saddle bags, and they will be much smaller.

In conclusion, let me say we are greatly impressed by your argument for a *reduced load*.

We shall welcome a good idea at any time, and if anything further suggests itself to you, I hope, General, you will send it to us.

Sincerely yours,

E. J. McCLELAND.



THE TENTH CAVALRY IN MEXICO.

BY CAPTAIN O. C. TROXEL, TENTH CAVALRY.

THERE have appeared in the Service Journals at various times, articles dealing with special phases of our experiences in Mexico, covering some action in which a particular troop or troops were engaged, equipment of troops, sanitation, or what not, but I have seen none that dealt in any way with the work of cavalry along its broader lines—that of pushing well out to the front, separating itself from its friendly troops, continuing its work while relying absolutely on the country for its sustenance, and operating in name and in fact as Independent Cavalry. Whatever phases of cavalry work our cavalry in Mexico did not get, certainly none will deny that we did get the part mentioned above. In this article, however, I propose limiting myself to the one phase of how we “lived on the country” and certainly no cavalryman who served in Mexico is more justified in saying that he did *all* the things mentioned above than the members of the Tenth Cavalry, who composed the expedition to near Parral under Colonel W. C. Brown, then in command of the regiment.

I speak of the Second Squadron and Machine Gun Troop Tenth Cavalry, which served in Mexico from March 20th to April 22d, without one mouthful of Government rations, one grain or spear of Government forage, one cent of Government money, no Government clothing, nor aid of any kind; and, when on May 1, 1916, it arrived back at San Antonio, Mexico, from the south, it was truly a case of the survival of the fittest, for there had been no picking of officers, men or horses for any part of the expedition.

We had from 6:00 P. M., March 9th to about 7:45 P. M., April 12th, passed over 750 miles of road space from Fort Huachuca, Arizona, to Santa Cruz de Villegas, near Parral,

in twenty-eight marching days. This, of course, does not measure the extra work done by those men and horses on advance, rear and flank guards, patrols, foraging parties, etc. They were what remained of the same troops that had left Fort Huachuca on March 9th, with wagon and pack trains. There had, however, been certain changes in personnel over which we had no control. Our wagons were left at Culberson's Ranch; the sick men and horses were left at Colonia Dublan; our pack train was on April 5th ordered back to Namiquipa to procure supplies for us, and we continued south retaining one mule per troop. Our sick men and sick animals at that time were sent north with the pack train. There were no further changes in personnel, except for the occasional buying of a horse or mule to keep the command mounted.

Our march overland to Culberson's Ranch was in no sense severe, but the weather was hot, only now and then did we have hay, watering facilities were always poor, the supply insufficient, and frequently none except at our nightly camps, and the country was sandy and devoid of grazing. We thus marched 160 miles before we entered Mexico, we lost several horses from sand colic, and all horses had begun to feel the effects of the march.

At this place, we were joined by the Seventh Cavalry and Battery B, Fifth Field Artillery, and with packed saddles for officers and men, five days' rations and three pack trains, made the march to Colonia Dublan, a distance of something over 100 miles, from shortly after midnight of March 15-16th to the evening of the 17th.

On the evening of the 18th, the Tenth Cavalry received orders to turn over to the Seventh Cavalry all of its remaining rations, and the Seventh left camp at 3:00 A. M. At about 8:00 A. M., March 19th, we received orders to receive the rations in the hands of Battery "B" and entrain for the south. The Battery had already eaten of their five days' rations for three and two-thirds days. As there were not enough freight cars for Troops "I" and "K," only Regimental Headquarters, First and Second Squadrons, Machine Gun Troop, and the Pack Train were entrained. Troops "L" and "M" had not joined.

Our troubles in patching and nailing up the cars, getting material for camps, collecting wood for the wood-burning engine, and getting started late in the afternoon, with the animals inside the freight cars and the officers and men on top—in truly Mexican style—were exceeded, if possible, only by the troubles in keeping the engine going by having the men get off and chop mesquite to burn in it, only to find that the wood must be used to send the engine some place for water, and so on *ad infinitum*.

As a result, all but the first squadron detrained at about 11:00 A. M., March 20th, at El Rucio, about twenty-seven miles from Dublan. For this noon meal, we ate the last of our Government rations except for perhaps some flour, and our pack train carried only oats. From this day on, we were to be "on the country." Each officer had a small amount of money. Personally, I had something less than \$10.00, but I had fortified myself with a check book which was to prove of no use to me as we were to strike only one place (Cusi) where money could be obtained for checks.

At first, we had not much trouble in getting a few supplies in exchange for receipts given by the Quartermaster, but as we went further south the natives became poorer and more reluctant to part with their supplies for a possible "scrap of paper," and one cannot blame them.

Considering all the varied circumstances of our being in Mexico, what should we do? To further embitter the Mexican people by taking away almost their last food and forage and not replace it with currency which they knew to be good and with which they could replace the stores taken, seemed to be the action to be taken only as a last resort. It was then that Colonel Brown began giving his personal checks for supplies taken, and continued doing so until his totals aggregated something like \$1,680.00. We were so entirely dependent on the country, especially as we had to depend each night on the supplies where we happened to be since we had no pack train, that I do not believe we could have continued south as we did had it not been for this assistance.

As to rations and cooking after leaving Colonia Dublan: We entered Mexico with no other cooking utensils than three

camp kettles per squadron, and, with five troops (we separated from the First Squadron on the morning of April 1st) this gave each troop a kettle three days out of five. This was run by roster among the Mess Sergeants. Later as we were able to find them, kerosene oil cans were purchased at \$1.00 apiece, which helped materially.

The only articles of food that we could get regularly were beef and frijoles—very seldom could we get even a poor quality of flour, or corn meal. However, when we could get corn in sufficient quantities to justify us in taking it from the horses, I made a practice of sending out scouts to locate little hand-mills about the size of coffee-mills, and had corn ground up for meal. The details often worked way into the night, but the great tendency was to grind too coarsely and thus get quantity instead of quality, with resultant cramps and diarrhoeal effects among the men. This ground was mixed with water and fried into cakes which the men generally made too thick, and therefore, not being well cooked, were very indigestible. We were very seldom able to get lard or salt and when we got the latter it was common dirty stock salt (rock) and little chunks of it would appear in the eating. Baking powder was impossible either on account of its absence or cost. Sugar and coffee were practically out of the question. Individuals could at times obtain small quantity of burnt Mexican coffee and were glad to have it even without the sugar. There were a few eggs but they were expensive and the difficult part was in making change for small purchases as there seemed to be no change in the country. We were always crazy for fruits, jams, and sweets of any kind and practically nothing of this kind to be had. When on the few occasions, sugar was obtainable, one could always see men eating it just so. I never allowed meat bones to be thrown away. After cutting off the meat as best we could with pocket knives or mess knives, for individual cooking, the bones would be carried to the next camp, and if we were to have the kettle that night, they would be put on to boil and boiled all night over the fire kept up by the picket line guard. About an hour before reveille, the cooks would be wakened and they would add from three to five cups (three was sufficient) of ground corn, and then just before serving,

scrape off all meat from the bones, stir up well, and serve. This breakfast was fit for a king to our minds, and was much enjoyed by all. I have eaten nothing to equal it either before or since and I hope I never have to, but it was good then.

We generally had to eat our beans (*frijoles*) for breakfast as there was not time in camp to prepare them for any other meal. Even then, the altitude was so high that they could not be thoroughly cooked and so there were more digestive troubles. We tried grinding up wheat for use in making bread but it did not seem to serve as well. Personally, I am very fond of parched corn and nearly always started out in the morning with a pocket full and would have nothing else to eat till night. "Parched corn coffee" also was much better than water.

As to clothing: Each man started with the authorized allowance in his pack. Unfortunately, the men had gotten so used to going out for Border duty and wearing their oldest clothes that many did the same thing this time. This made conditions worse than they should have been. Hoods of stirrups were used to tack on as half-soles of shoes, when tacks were available. Breeches were patched so long as patches would hold together, the men gambling to see whose shelter half was to be cut up for the purpose. Occasionally the Quartermaster bought and issued civilian clothing of all descriptions, and for hats the men took the lining of the saddle bags in the few cases where hats were lost or completely torn up. I got my patches from the lining of my overcoat.

As to horses: Fodder was often obtainable and when at hand was generally insufficient in quantity. There was practically no grazing except the dry grass as it lay dead on the ground. The horses would eat this for about half hour and then stand with hanging heads or lie down. No oats was in the country and corn was generally insufficient. Instead of getting about twelve cups per day, they had often for days at a time only three or four per horse. Occasionally, we had to feed wheat, which seemed to cause flatulency but I do not remember of any bad case of colic in my troop due to it. At one camp we had only ground up corn on the cob, and mostly cob, to feed. We lost a number of horses the following day from inability to keep up.

At all halts, I had my horse unbridled and led to the best place in the vicinity for grazing. Every opportunity was taken to water them and often the distances between watering places were so great that one was hard put to it to decide whether to let them drink the strong alkali water met with or wait hoping for something better. I, personally, saw to it that at least twice a week, the horses were held for a time in the water for the purpose of soaking and cooling their feet. I, also, found it necessary to pick out the places for and supervise the grazing, and I do not care to answer the criticisms of officers whom I have heard condemn this as being the work of a non-commissioned officer. It is shorter and more to the point to say that such officers are simply too lazy to do it.

As for horse-shoes, the horsehoer had his emergency equipment and each man had one fore and one hind shoe (fitted). I learned afterwards what I probably would not have approved at the time and that is that my horseshoer (a new man, too) had taken sixteen extra shoes in his saddle bags. These latter came in handy. At each halt, the horsehoer and his assistant, one assigned to each platoon, stood ready to tighten shoes as called for by the riders whose first duty at each halt was to examine their horses' shoes with that object in view.

I made each man feel that I would do my utmost to prevent his walking so long as his horse was not laid up through being barefooted or by having a sore back, and impressed it on them that I would do nothing for them in such cases, if investigation showed them to have been neglectful, and that, in any case, the individual whose horse became unserviceable from any cause was out of luck. The result was that grooming and saddling became one of very great importance to them and each squad leader inspected the horses of his squad and reported to me that they were or were not in such and such condition and pointed the individual horses out to me that needed attention. This was in addition to the inspection that both the farrier and myself made. Also, no cast-off horseshoe was ever passed by, if passed when marching at a walk. That was one thing for which I always granted permission to fall out, and the only other time when I gave this permission was after I had per-

sonally had a detailed explanation of the necessity therefor. The men soon stopped asking. There was, however, one article that we could not make up and that was the horseshoe nail, but thanks to the high, dry altitude we were troubled little, if any, by rust, as each man carried them in a greasy rag.

On April 10th, we were ordered to turn all our horseshoes into a common pile for the common good of the command. This was heart rendering to the men as well as to myself to give up our hoarding but I was proud to see something like thirty-five shoes turned by my troop of forty-three men. One other troop turned in a similar quantity and one troop turned in one shoe. It is easy to determine which troop was the cause of the order and which one got the most shoes from the pile, but still it was the necessary thing to do. We had no forge and tools for fitting and shoeing but could occasionally get some assistance from the very incomplete blacksmith shops at ranches. The first real opportunity for fitting shoes and trimming the feet was down near Parral when we were able to borrow an outfit from the troops of the Eleventh Cavalry that joined us there under Colonel Allen and Major Howze.

Undoubtedly, a great deal of the fatigue experienced by our horses was due to their long hoof walls, none of which had been trimmed nor to which had shoes been properly fitted at least since March 16th—one month before.

We had the old model equipment and depended on lariats entirely for the picket line. Broken lariats were never thrown away but tied together many times for re-use or used for halter tie ropes.

On our way back from Parral, corn was generally plentiful and we had some hay. I heard much comment as to the advisability of putting the animals on full feed at once. For me that was decided by my stable sergeant. The horses had had a full feed at night and were to have a full feed in the morning but, in addition to these feeds of corn, there was some wheat for which we would have no transportation the following day. He in disobedience of my orders, got up at 2:00 A. M. and fed the wheat rather than leave it. I wanted to try him by court-martial but awaited results. The result was that I became a convert to the Indian's method of "eating all you can while

you have it and starve when you have to," when it comes to feeding hard working horses. I, also, adopted the same motto for the pale face.

During the return march north from San Antonio, a very curious thing developed. Prior to May 1st, I had not had a sore back in my troop—not a man had walked on this account. At San Antonio, we rested for three or four days and again at Lake Itascate. It was at this latter place that I noticed some of the withers thickening and becoming quite hard, eventually requiring the lance, and this while the horses were doing absolutely nothing. It was a great surprise to me at the time and if crying could have done any good, I think I would have tried it. To think that this should have happened after the trouble and pains taken! On sober thought, I realized that it was just what I might have expected. However, there were only a few of these and none broke out after we started to use the horses again.

After separating from the First Squadron on April 1st, with whom we did not again join until about May 14th at Namiquipa we had a very pretty action again Villistas. We struck them at about 1:30 p. m. They had undoubtedly already begun to retreat and our action was with their rear guard only. They opened up at long range on Troop "E" (Captain S. D. Smith) our advance guard. We could see them leaving the village of Aguas Calientes and turn to the left around a low mountain peak. Troop "F" (Captain W. S. Valentine) was sent across the saddle hoping to head them off on our extreme left; I, with Troop "H," was sent up over this peak just to the left of the village, Major Chas. Young, accompanying me; the machine gun troop (Captain A. E. Phillips) went forward to take care of the ridge to the immediate right of the village; and Troop "G" (Captain Geo. B. Rodney), was rear guard and escort for the pack train, was for the moment held, until it was learned that they were melting away in our front.

Having gained the peak and finding no enemy, I got word from Captain Valentine that he was engaged further to my left and pulled my troop off in that direction. My troop remained in line of foragers at the trot and came up on Captain Valentine's left rear and continued in the oblique direction so

that eventually Captain Valentine's front was covered, leaving him free to mount and follow, which he promptly did. Troops "E," "G," and machine guns went on through the town.

When the Mexicans saw my reinforcing troop, they scattered and their fire became much more diminished. It was all going wild, so that my troop continued at the trot in hopes of striking the main body. I finally saw what appeared to be about 150 men about two miles ahead. I assembled my troop on ground favorable for rapid movements, sent a message to Colonel Brown and went after them at the gallop, closely followed by Captain Valentine. The "cracks" of their rifles began sounding pretty frequently again and we formed foragers and later dismounted for fire action, but soon saw that that was not the proper thing to do. By this time "F" Troop was alongside and we pursued them up to a horse-shoe shaped ridge on the top of which they were seemingly to make a stand. Captain Valentine went off to the right and I dismounted one platoon under First Sergeant and, with the other, advanced at the gallop, under his fire to one end of the horseshoe, by which time the Mexicans' fire had ceased and, as we later found out, they disappeared from the face of the earth to meet us on many occasions afterwards as perfectly good, loyal Carransistas. Having gained the ridge, all trace of them was gone. We began riding in ever increasing circles until we found where they assembled in sufficient numbers to make a trail. We followed this over the ridge and down to a ranch (Mesteña) on the other side, where the people claimed that about 150 Villistas had passed. It was then probably 5:00 P. M. Messengers were sent to Colonel Brown and Captain Valentine and we prepared to stay there for the night. The other troops came in about 8:00 P. M. We never saw these Villistas as opponents again. I made no notes at the time and have been unable to get data from others at the late date, so I will not try to give any figures. However, none of our men were hit and the horses were the only part of our command that had not enjoyed the skirmish. One horse was wounded, one of mine dropped exhausted, one died that night, we killed one the next morning, and one could just get along by being led. I do not know the loss of animals in other troops

We captured several ponies and mules and a part of their pack train. We know of three Mexicans killed and reports from Mexican sources as noted in American papers gave their casualties as forty-two, but I doubt the number and I do not believe any of our officers think we got that many. As they were never out in the open and as it was a running fight, we had no opportunity to look for their casualties, nor did we particularly care to do so.

I have wished many times that I had deliberately kept such notes as would have enabled me to give real data—figures and dates—covering our experiences, especially as to horses, their forage, shoeing, condition, etc., so that this might have been an article from which more valuable information could be gleaned for our future operations such as will undoubtedly come to our cavalry.

However, should I be ordered out on exactly the same proposition again, and know that I had the same problems to face in the same high, dry altitude, and with the same strict allowance, I would beg my commanding officer for one more mule per troop (making a total of two) and about two mules for the squadron to carry such as one forge and one set of blacksmith tools and a small quantity of farriers, saddlers and medical supplies. *I would also want some money* unless I was operating in hostile country and could take full advantage of that fact. This, of course, presupposes that the squadron will stay together and, as a matter of fact, it need never be so far separated that each troop can not occasionally take advantage of the articles on the two squadron mules.

After returning to Dublin, the officers of the regiment were called together and required to vote on what cavalry actually needed for just such operations and the transportation necessary for this purpose. Again I do not remember figures, but I do remember that we could have, by our votes, been divided into three distinct classes, depending on the experiences passed through, viz: *First*, Those who did not engage in any scouting operations; *Second*, Those who mostly made trips from some base, out and back on some special mission; *Third*, Those composing the expedition south under Colonel Brown. The first class voted for much more plunder and transportation than the other two, and the third class, the least of all.



OUR WAR WITH GERMANY.*

A MONTHLY CHRONICLE OF EVENTS.

I.

(April 6th—April 18th.)

AT eighteen minutes past one o'clock on the afternoon of Friday, April 6th, the United States went to war against the Imperial German Government. That was the hour and moment at which President Wilson wrote his name in approval at the bottom of the parchment bearing the resolution of Congress making the formal declaration. No pomp of circumstance or ceremony attended the signature of this resolution, the most importance and far-reaching in its effect that any President has signed since Abraham Lincoln put his name to the official draft of the immortal Emancipation Proclamation. As you enter the main north door of the White House—the "Big House" to distinguish the residence from the office wing—there is a small room at the right, used by the chief usher, about eight by ten feet in dimension. There, seated at the usher's desk, and with only his wife and cousin present besides three employees of the executive and White House Staffs, the President signed the national decree of outlawry against the Imperial Government of Germany.

*Reprinted from *The North American Review* with the kind permission of the Editor, Mr. George Harvey.

Immediately he issued his proclamation notifying all who might be concerned; enjoining vigilance and zeal upon all United States authorities, civil and military; calling upon all American citizens to give loyal support to the nation and warning all alien enemies to preserve the peace and obey the laws. Simultaneously official word went to army and navy, and as far as long adherence to the practice, if not the policy, of pacifism permitted, the United States was on a war footing, with the most powerful military organization the world has ever known as its enemy.

Thereupon, with characteristic American confidence—with characteristic Anglo-Saxon confidence—there was a general setting to work to put the United States into proper condition to make good that declaration.

The case for the United States against the Imperial German Government had been long in the making. President Wilson had displayed more patience than some of his countrymen would have shown, and there had been times when it seemed that the outlaw practices authorized and permitted by the German Government must force the United States to armed resistance. Only the promise solemnly given on the 4th of May, 1916, by the Imperial Government, to curb these practices on the part of its uniformed subordinates, prevented the break from coming that year. Then, when on the evening of the last day of January of this year, the Imperial German Government served notice on President Wilson that it intended to revoke that promise at midnight—only six hours later—it was evident to all who had any skill in reading American character that the crisis had come.

Only the Imperial German Government failed to understand. But this was but the addition of one more to the already long list of its failures to comprehend the psychology of other peoples. Proceeding upon the theory that any sort of wanton practice might be made lawful by its proclamation, that Government scorned the suggestion that it would drive the United States into the list of its open enemies, and scoffed at the prediction that even in the event of war the United States could inflict material damage upon the German cause. And so the Imperial German Government reflected the possibility of

preventing American participation in the war, even after President Wilson had issued his call for a special session of the Congress, and it was apparent to all the world what course he would take when it met.

The Congress assembled on Monday, April 2d, and at a joint session of the Senate and House of Representatives that evening President Wilson presented the case against the Imperial German Government in an address which will always rank among the greatest, as it is among the most important of American state papers. Opening with the statement that there "were very serious choices of policy to be made" which it was neither right nor constitutionally permissible for him to make, the President laid before Congress a concise summing up of the course of Germany under its decision to "put aside all restraints of law or humanity." He described how "in the progress of the cruel and unmanly business" on which the Imperial Government had embarked every restriction had been swept aside and the work had gone on "with reckless lack of compassion or of principle."

The German submarine warfare against commerce, the President said, "is a warfare against mankind. It is a war against all nations * * * Challenge is to all mankind." The armed neutrality which, in an earlier address to Congress the President had felt would be sufficient answer to Germany's menace, he was now convinced was impracticable, "because submarines are, in effect, outlaws, when used as German submarines have been used. * * *"

"There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making," declared the President, "we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are no common wrongs; they cut at the very roots of human life."

And then Mr. Wilson made that recommendation to Congress which it had been his deepest hope to avoid—the recommendation that it make formal declaration of war:

"With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking, and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what

I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States: that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it, and that it take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war."

This course, the President said, would involve "the utmost practicable coöperation" with Germany's present enemies; the extension to them of "the most liberal financial credits" so that our resources may be added to theirs so far as possible; the "organization and mobilization of all the material resources of the country;" the "immediate full equipment of the navy," especially with means of dealing with the enemy submarines the immediate addition to the armed forces of the United States of at least 500,000 men "to be chosen upon the principle of universal liability to service" with subsequent equal increments as needed; and finally, the "granting of adequate credits to the Government," sustained, as far as may be equitably, by taxation.

Having thus summed up against the German Government, made his recommendation for action and stated what he conceived to be involved by it, the President proceeded to a declaration of the motives justifying the proposed action.

This message of the President met with instant response and approval from all parts of the United States and from all the civilized world. His statement of motives was received as "an appeal to every instinct, every impulse, every tradition of democracy." Among his countrymen the voice of criticism and political opposition was hushed, if not wholly silenced. Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, who had been one of the most vigorously critical of Mr. Wilson's political antagonists hailed the message as one of the greatest of American state papers, and called at the White House to express his appreciation of it and to offer his services in raising a division of troops for prompt service in the field against Germany.

The press of England and France, and of the newly republican Russia greeted the message and the advent of the

United States into the ranks of the enemies of the German Government with enthusiastic approval and every manifestation of profound satisfaction. Similar expressions came from Italy and from Belgium, and from Japan came the added suggestion that the United States might assist in furnishing transportation for an army of a million Japanese soldiers to go to Europe and take part in there the final task of overthrowing the German armies.

But while the Entente Powers rejoiced over the acquisition of a new ally the press of Germany, which had maintained a cynical and sneering indifference up to the moment of the actual break, received the President's merciless description of the Imperial Government with an outburst of savage rage which manifested itself in the application of such epithets as "dishonest," "untrue," and "perfidious" to the President and his words, at the same time indulging in the old line of threats and boasts about this marking the certain end of the Monroe Doctrine. Yet the rest of the world considered that it more certainly marked the end of the Imperial German Government if not also of the House of Hohenzollern.

Congress proceeded to act promptly upon the President's recommendation. A resolution formally declaring "the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has been thrust upon the United States," and authorizing and directing the President to put the country in a thorough state of defense, and also "to exert all of its power and employ all of its resources to carry on war against the Imperial German Government," was introduced immediately in both Senate and House.

Action was delayed one day in the Senate by the opposition of Mr. La Follette, who numbers among his constituents probably larger percentage of voters of German descent than any other Senator. When the vote was taken after a debate in which Mr. La Follette had assailed England and defended the German course, the resolution, amended so as to pledge the nation's entire resources to the war, was carried by eight-two to six. The influence of German constituencies manifested itself also in the House, where it had the assistance of Mr. Kitchin, the Democratic leader, who, like Miss Rankin, of

Montana, the first woman elected to Congress, simply could not bring himself to cast a vote for war, and who practically admitted, in debate, that he was for peace at any price. The House adopted the resolution as it passed the Senate, about 3:30 o'clock on the morning of April 6th, by a vote of 373 to 50, and as soon as it had been signed by Speaker Clark and Vice-President Marshall it was sent to the White House for the President's approval.

Besides the opposition to the declaration inspired within Congress by German influence there was an organized opposition of small proportions but noisy character, coming from professional pacifists and peace-at-any-price people. One delegation from Boston was so vigorous in its opposition to combat that one of its members assaulted Senator Lodge at his committee-room door, and was knocked down by the veteran Massachusetts statesman. The adoption of the declaration of war, and the promulgation of the President's proclamation materially checked this purely pacifist opposition, but did not seem to exert any noticeable influence upon that proceeding from German sources, either in or out of Congress. Some of the pacifists took their cue from William J. Bryan who telegraphed the President asking to be listed as a volunteer for any service he could render as a private whenever the President desired to call upon him. The man who assaulted Senator Lodge announced that he had been cured of his mental slant and would support the war as best he could.

Mr. Kitchin and some of his followers in the House, and Mr. Stone, in the Senate, stated publicly that since the country had determined to make war despite their opposition they would support the country's attitude, although it was against their convictions. Mr. Kitchin retains his place as leader of his party in the House, and will have charge of the war revenue measures, having conducted one of them, for the \$7,000,000,000 bond issue, to successful passage already. Opposition responsive to the influence of German constituencies continued, being especially marked in certain cases in the House as well as in the case of Mr. La Follette.

The promulgation of the formal declaration of war brought at once from the heads of the Allied Governments formal

expression of rejoicing over the action of the United States, and of deep satisfaction with President Wilson's statement of the motives and purposes of the American nation. President Poincare, in a personal message to President Wilson gave expression to the profound emotion stirred in the French Republic. King George, Lloyd George, the British Premier, and Asquith, his predecessor, with other members of the British Government, were quick to telegraph their joy that the "whole English-speaking race is to fight as comrades side by side in the most momentous struggle in history," and to give recognition, on behalf of "all the peoples of the British Empire" to the "chivalry and courage which call the people of the United States to dedicate the whole of their resources to the greatest cause that ever engaged human endeavor."

From Rome came similar messages, and from Petrograd came word that the American Republic was giving new strength to the cause of liberty and assisting to render solid the foundations of the new democratic Government of Russia. From Japan, also, and from Belgium and others of the Allied Governments, there came the same note of deep rejoicing. Even China, which had already broken diplomatic relations with Germany felt the urge to follow still farther, and declare war. But from Germany there were renewed snarls of rage with scornful belittlement of what the unorganized and unprepared United States could do to injure mighty Germany.

Most striking and significant was the response from American citizens of German birth or descent. Despite the active opposition of the representatives in Congress of some of the strongest of these constituencies, it was made apparent by the public utterances and acts of many influential men of German blood that no matter what the severance of their ties of kinship might cost them their loyalty was to the United States and their allegiance would be true.

One result of great importance flowed from the American declaration which had not been anticipated. That was a solidification of Latin-America behind American leadership such as had not been believed possible. Here at last was a stand taken by the United States to which the rest of the West-

ern Hemisphere seems willing to credit genuine unselfishness and sincerity.

The island republic of Cuba led in this acknowledgment. As an expression of duty to the United States, in gratitude for what it had done for her, and of duty to the principles of justice and humanity, President Menocal, on the day following the declaration of war by the United States, asked the Cuban Congress to give him authority to take the same action. And without a dissenting voice the Cuban Congress responded. "Whatever effort Cuba shall make to assist the United States of America" so ran the report of the Cuban committee, "will be looked upon as the generous action of a grateful people, and of a friend who can never forget the sacrifice and effort made by the United States to coöperate in our struggle for independence."

In line with this action by Cuba, although not yet as far-reaching, was that of Brazil in breaking off relations with Germany. Brazil had as motive the same wanton disregard of her rights by Germany that had impeled other nations, and her rupture of relations was expected to lead very soon to declaration of war. Argentina declared intention to maintain neutrality but announced that the Government supported the position of the United States. Chile, Uruguay and Paraguay took similar action. Peru, Bolivia and even Columbia showed their sympathy with the position taken by the United States. Bolivia terminated diplomatic relations with Germany.

In Central America Panama promptly ranged herself with the United States as an avowed enemy of Germany. Costa Rico announced that she was with the United States and "would prove it if necessary." Guatemala and Nicaragua indicated their strong sympathy with the United States, and only in Mexico, where German intrigue had made strong efforts against us, were there symptoms of unfriendliness. Never has there been such sympathy of purpose and of action of the part of Latin-America with the leadership of the United States.

Having declared war against the Imperial German Government, and having directed the President to employ all the resources of the United States to bring that war to a successful termination, Congress set about the work of passing

upon the recommendations of the President as to the means of employing the nation's resources. While Congress was making ready for this work agents of the Government were seizing the German merchant ships and auxiliary cruisers which were lying in American waters, and beginning the task of making them ready for war service. Many of them had been badly damaged, especially in machinery, by their crews. The crew of the interned cruiser *Cormoran*, lying in the harbor of Apia, Guam, blew up the ship to prevent her falling into American hands in serviceable condition, several of them losing their lives in the explosion. There were ninety-one German ships seized, aggregating 593,790 tons. The German crews were removed from all these ships and taken to immigrant stations or other suitable places for detention. German ships were seized at seventeen different continental ports and in the Phillipines, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Samoa.

At the same time that these ships were seized many persons suspected or charged with espionage or other violation of law or the President's orders to alien enemies were arrested. Statutes enacted in 1789, were invoked in some of these cases, and seizures were made without reference to local courts. Many evidences of enemy activity of greater or less degree were discovered, including the finding of mines placed in such position as to destroy two of the ships held at Philadelphia when they were moved. The National Guard was called out in many of the States and stationed to protect railway bridges and other public works which might be injured or destroyed by explosives. In numerous cases such guards were fired upon from ambush at night, and some casualties occurred. Guards repeatedly fired on prowlers who refused to heed their orders, and some such persons were killed. But in general good order was preserved, and there was no material disturbance. An explosion in a munitions plant near Philadelphia resulted in the loss of more than 100 lives. The belief was widely held that the explosion had been caused by alien enemies, and numerous arrests were made. No definite proof has come to public notice as yet, however.

Meantime Washington has hummed with activity in preparation for energetic participation in the war. Estimates

calling for appropriations of \$3,400,000,000 for the first year were submitted to Congress by the War and Navy Departments. The President's recommendation that a substantial loan to the Allied Governments, and adequate credits for our own Government, be provided for, was acted upon with great promptness. A bill passed the House of Representatives, unanimously, on April 14th, and the Senate on April 17th, providing for an issue of \$5,000,000,000 of three and one-half per cent. bonds and \$2,000,000,000 of short-term Treasury certificates. This bill authorizes the President and Secretary of the Treasury to invest three billions before the end of the war in securities of Governments at war with Germany. The intention of the Government is to grant assistance to Russia at the earliest possible time. Some influential bankers have advised against attempting to float the entire loan at once on the ground that the transfer of so large a sum in a short time would tend to upset domestic conditions. But evidences of the popularity of the loan were very numerous, and offers of large individual subscriptions poured in to the Treasury Department.

Immediately upon the announcement that war had been declared advice as to how best to act against Germany began to flow into Washington from all parts of the United States and even from Europe. Two especially clear lines of action were proposed. One was for the immediate lending of credit and the early despatch of troops to France, both for their moral as well as their physical effect. The other proposal was that the most helpful course for the United States would be to furnish food and other supplies to the Allied Governments, and to build ships with all our energy in order to insure the transportation of such supplies.

Congress prepared to follow the action as to war funds by authorization for increases of the army and navy. The Senate very promptly passed the Army Appropriation Bill which had failed of enactment at the regular session, together with some minor military measures. Much opposition to the President's recommendation for selection of the new troops upon the principle of universal liability to service appeared in both the House and the Senate. Many Senators and Representatives advocate just one more trial of the volunteer system despite the fact that

it has failed at every crisis in the history of the country when it has been invoked. President Wilson has given no indication of withdrawing from his position as this is written. Preparation is going forward for raising an army of more than a million men at first, with subsequent plans depending upon the course of events.

The demand for ships has met with ready response. The Federal Shipping Board acted favorably upon suggestions that it undertake the construction of wooden ships, and the initial steps to accomplish that were taken quickly, with the expectation of having the first vessels available for service within a few months.

Simultaneously the purchase in large quantities of supplies for all services began, the War Department making one contract for 3,000,000 trench bombs. The National Defense Council, acting in close harmony with the different Government Departments, labored to secure the best service from the industrial organizations of the nation. The Presidents of the leading railroads of the country met at Washington and named a board of five men to direct the operation of all the American railways throughout the war in order to insure the fullest coöperation with the Government, and "in the effort to produce a maximum of national transportation efficiency."

The representatives of organized labor lost no time in pledging the support of labor to the effective conduct of the war, and manifested it in their support of the huge bond bill in Congress.

Responsive to the suggestion that the greatest possibility for effective service from the United States was in the provision of food, the Administration at Washington and those of practically all the various States called upon the people to exert every energy in the production and frugal use of food. Warnings against waste were issued everywhere, and the wives of cabinet members set the example of saving food by cutting down their own meals. Organizations to stimulate agriculture and to furnish the needed assistance to farmers have been effected in many States, the purpose being to facilitate supply of money, or of seed or fertilizers, and to assist in securing farm labor. A National Food Board was suggested by the

National Defense Council, and Herbert C. Hoover, chairman of the American Commission for Relief in Belgium, accepted its chairmanship, with an urgent appeal for national economy. In many ways and along many lines the nation began its belated preparations for war. Steps were taken for consultation with the Allied Governments in Europe. Army and navy officers in London and Paris communicated with the authorities of their services, and discussion of methods of effective coöperation began. Then it was announced that a commission from the Allied Governments would come to Washington and that former Premier Arthur J. Balfour would represent the British Government. It was also announced that ex-Premier Viviani and Field Marshal Joffre would represent the French Government. Preparations for the reception of this commission are under way as this is written.

Following the declaration of war against the Imperial German Government, the United States took no action against Austria, Bulgaria or Turkey. But those Governments being allies of Germany, in turn broke off relations with the United States, and accordingly this Government seized fourteen Austrian ships that were lying in American Waters, and is prepared to include Austria in the declaration of war if that becomes necessary.

Thus the great democracy of the New World has joined the great English and French democracies of the Old World, and the new democracy of Russia, in mortal challenge to the Imperial Autocracy of Germany, and the American democracy has begun to rouse itself for the struggle.

II.

(April 19th—May 17th.)

As this is written, six weeks have elapsed since we went to war with "the Imperial German Government" and we are making practical demonstration to ourselves that it takes time to prepare for war, and that we have used the time in past years for something else.

Few accomplishments of this six weeks' period are completed, but there are many beginnings, and much of what has been done is of vast importance. Both in purely domestic affairs and international matters the way to our successful physical participation in the war has been made clearer; on the international side by the arrival in the United States of formal commissions from Great Britain, France and Italy, empowered to give our Government aid, information and assistance as to the needs and situation of their countries and the actual existing military conditions which we must face; on the domestic side by the completion of two great legislative acts of preparation, and the advancement of several others of commanding importance.

The travel of the British and French Commissions was shrouded in secrecy until they safely terminated their voyages. The British Commission, headed by the Right Honorable Arthur James Balfour, Secretary of State of Foreign Affairs in the Lloyd George Government, reached Washington on April 22d, having landed at Halifax. The French Commission, headed by René Viviani, Vice-Premier and Minister of Justice, and Marshal Joffre, the victor of the Marne, landed at Fort Monroe two days later and proceeded at once to the national capital.

The American people were deeply stirred by the coming of these distinguished Frenchmen and Britons. Especially were their emotion and enthusiasm aroused by Marshal Joffre. From the moment the formal official receptions in Washington were over the demand for opportunity to meet and pay respect to the High Commissioners has been continuous. Wherever it has been possible for them to go there has been an outpouring of people to emphasize the genuineness and heartiness of their welcome. Both Commissions were invited to visit the House of Representatives and the Senate, and both Houses were addressed by Mr. Balfour and M. Viviani. An unending round of luncheons, dinners, receptions and public functions has marked the stay of the Commissioners in the United States. Mayor Thompson, of Chicago, distinguished himself by opposing an invitation to the French Commissioners to visit Chicago.

Whereupon he was accused of being disloyal to his country and efforts were made to cause his prosecution.

The arrival of the two missions was followed immediately by a general announcement from Washington that the needs of our allies in Europe were men, ships and food, and that every effort should be made by this country to facilitate prompt supply to meet these needs. The bill authorizing the raising of armies for the war was pending in both Houses of Congress, with its three angled fight over draft, volunteer system and Colonel Roosevelt. The urgency of the British and French Commissioners in favor of prompt sending of American troops to France greatly stimulated the debate and had marked effect upon the fate of this bill in Congress.

Marshal Joffre was especially vigorous in urging the sending of an American force at the earliest possible moment. He made some outspoken remarks on this subject in a meeting with the Washington newspaper men, but someone at the State Department had the temerity to delete part of what Joffre had said from the version given to the press for publication.

General Bridges, of the British Commission, openly asked for American troops as soon as they could be sent. Marshal Joffre met numbers of Congressmen at dinners and other social functions and did not hesitate to emphasize his opinion on the importance of sending Americans to the front immediately. The distinguished French and British Commissioners were diplomatic but effective.

At the same time reports of the gravest character concerning the work of the German submarines were published with sober emphasis, and Administration officials, especially Secretary Lane, expressed serious apprehension as to the outcome. These reports were followed by announcement that Americans were on the point of success in devising an effective weapon against the submarine. But this announcement was immediately scotched as premature.

On Sunday, April 29th, both the British and French missions went to Mt. Vernon and visited the tomb of Washington, paying tribute to the work and worth of the great American. It was the second time that an English tribute had been laid on that tomb. The French Commissioners also visited the

tomb of Lincoln, on the occasion of their trip to Chicago. Both commissions were guests of the city of New York for three days. On this occasion Marshal Joffre went to West Point and reviewed the cadets of the Military Academy. While there he was notified of his election to membership in the Society of the Cincinnati, and received the emblem of the order. He is the second Frenchman to be received into that society, the first having been Marquis de Lafayette.

The first of the two great legislative acts of preparation for the war to which reference has been made had only to do with the authorization for the raising and lending of money—and therefore was easy. The second involved the determination of the policy upon which to raise the armies that are to be sent against the Germans—and therefore was much more difficult.

The bill authorizing five billions of war bonds and two additional billions of treasury certificates was passed unanimously in each branch of Congress, but certain amendments in the Senate necessitated a conference, which consumed several days, so that it was not until April 24th that President Wilson signed it. This law authorized the President to purchase securities of foreign governments to the amount of \$3,000,000,000. On April 25th, Mr. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, handed a treasury warrant for \$200,000,000 to the British ambassador as the first installment of the three billion loan to our allies. Under the same authority he has since advanced \$100,000,000 to the French, to the Italians and a similar amount to the Russians. Other loans are now in process of arrangement.

At the same time the machinery was set in motion for the flotation of a huge part of the authorized war bonds. The "Liberty Loan of 1917" it was christened by the Treasury Department. It is designed to float \$2,000,000,000 of the bonds—two-fifths of the total authorization—in the pending issue.

Announcement of the bond issue was made by Secretary McAdoo on May 2d. Telegrams had been sent from the Treasury Department to banks and bankers all over the United States. Responses began to pour into the department

the next day foreshadowing subscriptions in such sums that Mr. McAdoo was reported as expressing the enthusiastic belief that the entire loan would be subscribed within a few days, and that before the close of the subscription period, on June 15th, it would be much oversubscribed. Subscriptions aggregating more than \$600,000,000 were received within three or four days. But when the immediate response from banks and bankers was concluded there followed a slump in subscriptions which showed that the investing and patriotic public had not been reached, and that through organization and much work were needed in bringing about the successful flotation of a bond issue of such huge proportions.

Thereupon the assistance of bankers and other outsiders was requested by the Treasury Department. A practical banking publicity committee was formed in New York and other committee elsewhere. General organization was undertaken with the purpose of putting the merits of the loan fully before the people generally throughout the country as well as before the comparatively small investing public, so as to begin the mobilization of the nation's credit reserves for the success of the Liberty Loan.

Thus this first step, the authorization of credit for seven billions of dollars, was in fact only the initial one of a long series of important steps that will grow more and more important as the war goes on, the beginning, in fact, of a wearisome march that will not end until many years after the close of the war, however soon that happy event may come.

The second of these important legislative acts of preparation is really hardly completed at this writing. In his great appeal to Congress of April 2d, President Wilson, advocated raising the armies of the United States upon the principle of the obligation of universal military service. There was great antagonism to the adoption of the draft principle among the Democratic leaders in Congress, and especially in the House of Representatives, where the chairman of the Military Affairs Committee, Mr. Dent, and the Democratic floor leader, Mr. Kitchin, and Speaker Clark were all opposed.

The adoption of Mr. Wilson's recommendation meant the reversal of the policy of relying upon volunteers to fill up the

forces—the policy that has been invoked at the outset of every war the nation has fought from 1775 down to date, and that has failed at every trial. But the fact of that unbroken series of failures did not prevent influential men in both Senate and House from continuing to support the volunteer principle.

The House Committee on Military Affairs reported a bill favoring the volunteer system, but permitting use of the draft when the volunteer system failed, thus fixing odium upon the draft. The Senate committee reported a bill upon the draft principle, thus making it possible for the Government to take first the men most needed and making draft a mark of distinction rather than of shame.

The issue was further complicated by the application of Colonel Theodore Roosevelt for permission to raise a volunteer division for immediate service in France, the division to be composed of men not subject to draft, and with himself in command or in command of one of the brigades, if the Government desired to put a regular army officer at the head of the division. This made a three angled fight. There were straight out supporters of conscription who wanted that and nothing else. There were straight out supporters of the volunteer system who wanted that without seeming to care what else happened. And there were those who wanted Colonel Roosevelt to have the opportunity he desired, and who didn't care much on which plan of raising the army they tacked that provision.

In the House, Mr. Kahn, a "regular" Republican from California, led the fight for the Administration proposition and opposed the Roosevelt plan. In the Senate, Mr. Harding, of Ohio, chairman of the Republican National Convention which refused to nominate Mr. Roosevelt for the Presidency last year, led the fight for the Roosevelt division plan. Debate lasted five days in the House. Speaker Clark, replying to a delegation that favored the draft, declared that in his State "conscript" and "convict" had about the same meaning, a statement which was promptly contradicted by telegrams from the Speaker's home district announcing that it was strongly for the Administration plan. As the debate went on in the House the Administration grew stronger and stronger, and after it had triumphed by striking the volunteer provision from the

bill and inserting the draft plan, and by defeating the Roosevelt division, the opposition faded away so that the bill was passed, as amended, on April 28th, by a vote of 397 to 24.

The Senate began debating the bill on April 21st, three days before the House took it up, and reached the voting stage a few minutes after the House concluded its roll call. Here the Roosevelt plan triumphed, an amendment being adopted authorizing the raising of four volunteer divisions. The general volunteer plan was defeated, the Administration draft plan adopted, except that the age limits were fixed at twenty-one and twenty-seven, instead of twenty-one and forty, as in the House, and an amendment was adopted forbidding the sale or gift of liquor to an officer or soldier in uniform. The Senate passed the bill by a vote of 81 to 8, and it went to conference after a delay of three days for unraveling of a parliamentary tangle.

In conference the bill stuck more than a week. The House conferees would not agree to the Roosevelt army nor would the Senate conferees take the House age limits. At length, on May 10th, a compromise agreement was reached by the conferees, dropping the Roosevelt division and fixing the age limits for conscription at twenty-one to thirty, both inclusive. That seemed to clear the way for early final action on the bill. Mr. Roosevelt telegraphed Senator Harding that he did not want the army bill held up because of a fight over his offer to lead a division to France. But while the conferees had been wrangling something had been happening in the House, and sentiment in favor of the Roosevelt plan was greatly increased. So when the conferees report came up in the House for action on May 12th, Mr. Anthony, of Kansas, a Republican, who had been a strong political opponent of Mr. Roosevelt, moved to recommit to the conferees with instruction to them to reinsert the Roosevelt amendment. That motion carried, after a red hot debate of two hours, by a vote of 215 to 178. The conferees report which had been submitted to the Senate was withdrawn by unanimous consent and the bill went to conference again. Agreement on this point was reached on May 15th, in accordance with the instructions of the House. But when the conference report was submitted again to the House on May 16th, that body sent the bill back once more on a question of the pay

of enlisted men. The Senate conferees agreed to the House contention and the House at length accepted the report, leaving the bill with the Senate for final action.

Administration influence was strongly exerted against the adoption of the Roosevelt plan in the House, but for the first time failed to command success on a really important occasion. The provision if finally adopted, is permissive only, and not mandatory. It remains to be seen what the President will do with it. In a speech to the Red Cross on the day the House acted President Wilson, commenting on the grimness of the war, exclaimed, "This is no time for amateurs." But he may not have meant Mr. Roosevelt.

Meantime organization had been largely developed for registration of young men throughout the country for selection under the draft, and the Army administration is ready to proceed with the conscription of the men necessary to fill the Regular Army and National Guard to war strength, and to raise the first 500,000 of the newly authorized forces. Selection of men for training as officers was completed for the first section in the first week in May and they were ordered to the different training camps for three months' instruction before selection of those to receive commissions.

Recruiting on the old volunteer plan continues for the Regular Army and the National Guard, as well as for the Navy and Marine corps. But despite vigorous efforts on the part of the authorities, it has been marked by languor rather than energy, and fell materially short of producing the needed men. Josephus Daniels, Jr., son of the Secretary of the Navy, enlisted as a private in the Marine Corps.

While this fight over the Roosevelt plan was going on in the conference on the army draft bill the Senate was having a lively time over another Administration measure called the "Espionage bill" because it aimed, among other things, to check and punish espionage. Also it included, at first, the grant to the President of a board power of censorship over the press of the country, as well as a grant of complete power to embargo upon all exports. The Senate had laid aside this bill on April 21st to take up the army bill. Repeatedly the Senate sat with closed doors for the freer discussion of these provisions. At one time

the embargo provision was radically amended, on the initiative of Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia, so as to affect only shipments to neutral countries adjacent to Germany. But in response to Administration influence that action was reconsidered and Mr. Smith withdrew his amendment. Thereupon an embargo provision substantially what the President desired was adopted.

The censorship section, after provoking lively discussion and many amendments, was stricken wholly out of the bill on May 12th by the close vote of 39 to 38. On that same day the Senate adopted an amendment forbidding the manufacture of intoxicating liquors for beverages from grains during the war. Two days later the Senate reversed itself, struck this provision from the bill; defeated a motion to reinsert the censorship, and passed the bill, with the embargo plan retained very much in the shape desired by the Administration. At intervals, during the consideration of the Espionage bill, the Senate turned briefly to something else. It devoted one day to secret debate of a resolution authorizing the President to put into service the German ships seized and held in various American ports, which was passed. Then the House considered it in the open and also passed it. Men are at work on all these ships repairing the damage their German crews did to them before they were seized. It is expected that all will be ready for service in a comparatively short time. Some are ready now.

The Espionage bill was taken up in the House, after the Army bill was passed, and immediately developed the same kind of attack on the censorship provision as in the Senate. This provision was first defeated by a majority of 53, and then reinserted in a modified form by a majority of 5, after many of those who had voted against it had left the chamber. Thereupon the bill was passed by a vote of 260 to 105.

It was determined to send a commission to Russia and the appointment of Elihu Root at its head was announced. Other members include representative American bankers, captains of industry and men prominent in the ranks of the American Socialists and the American Federation of Labor. The Army is represented by General Scott, chief of staff, and the Navy by Rear Admiral Glennon.

Congressional activity gave considerable time, in committee, to the drafting of certain measures of preparation for war, and to the consideration of other measures that arrived, in completed draft form, from one or another of the Administration executive departments. The House Ways and Means committee devoted many perplexed and painful hours to preparation of a war revenue bill that should raise the colossal sum of \$1,800,000,000 per annum by taxation. This bill was reported to the House on May 9th, and immediately became the subject of violent controversy. It doubles the normal rate of income tax—from two to four per cent.—after reducing the exemptions one-half — from \$4,000 to \$2,000. It increases the surtaxes on large incomes by immense differentials, reaching a total of thirty-three per cent. on the highest class. It levies an additional one-third on the incomes of last year, many of which have already paid their taxes for 1916.

It proposes to levy a ten per cent. *ad valorem* customs duty on all articles now in the free list, and to add ten per cent. *ad valorem* to the rates of duty on all articles now in the dutiable list.

It proposes an excess profits tax of sixteen per cent., together with inheritance, or estate taxes, ranging from one-half of one per cent. to fifteen per cent. It proposes material increase in postage rates, especially on second-class matter, affecting newspapers and other publications, includes a wide range of miscellaneous taxes, covering practically every phase of amusement and many phases of commerce and industry. Also it proposes a small consumption tax on tea and coffee.

The taxes proposed in this bill are enormous for Americans, but at that they are less than the rates imposed by the British tax laws. As this goes to press a lively fight is on in the House over this bill, and some amendments to the committee draft have been adopted.

Suggestions or request for Congressional grants of power for war purposes came from many executive departments or bureaus, and many bills and resolutions meeting these suggestions and requests were introduced. Their sponsors all sought to have it appear that each was strictly an "Adminis-

tration measure" in order to give it the prestige on which it might be accepted by the House and Senate.

One series of these bills, from the Department of Agriculture, seeks to confer upon the Secretary of Agriculture and the President complete control of all food and fuel supplies, their production, price, manufacture, and distribution, as well as power to commandeer supplies and plants and to establish regulations fixing use and right to possession of supplies of food, clothing and fuel. The proposed grants of power are made absolute and unlimited for the period of the war.

Herbert C. Hoover, head of the Belgian Relief Commission, who has been suggested as American Food Controller, arrived in Washington on the day these bills were presented to Congress and at once got into the fight for their enactment. Mr. Hoover's experience during the war lends weight to the urgent emphasis he lays upon the absolutely imperative necessity that this country shall produce the utmost possible quantities of all kinds of food for supply to our European allies. He joined immediately in the campaign to stimulate food production which the Department of Agriculture is conducting.

Meantime the Council of National Defense and its Advisory Commission have been extremely busy, chiefly with matters of organization, preparation, the appointment of committees, the allotment of duties and labor, and the general shaping up for the immense task that will fall upon the executive administration when once the United States really get into the fight. Washington is a great blur of committees, with new ones falling out of the appointment hopper almost hourly. The legislative effort is first to centralize the administrative power. Then the Administration decentralizes by appointment of committees that ramify to the last detail of the work.

Inland transportation management, in the hands of the special railway committee of the Advisory Commission, has made great advance toward completion of its organization, separate committees for the different districts and lines of work having been named, with practical transportation men at the head of each.

The Committee on Raw Material has made similar preparation, by the appointment of subordinate special committees

for the different materials, each headed by a well known captain of industry. The German organization of the Technical Staff of the War Office is not more thorough in this respect.

Under the lead of the Council of National Defense a three days' conference was held in Washington, attended by specially appointed representatives of the defense councils of the various states. More than forty States were represented, ten of them by their Governors, and others by the chairmen of their defense councils. Meetings were held at which the entire Government program was explained and discussed. Members of the State councils also had the advantage of meeting and hearing the members of the British and French Commissions, who were then in Washington, and learned at first hand of the immediate needs of these two of our allies.

The United States Shipping Board, having got its plans for construction of wooden ships under way, turned its attention to the problem of speeding up construction of steel ships. General Goethals, president of the shipping corporation organized by the Shipping Board, strongly favors steel construction. Tremendous stimulation of ship building has been accomplished. The Government announces it has also bought seven Austrian ships which were in American water from an American firm that had purchased them from their Austrian owners. The Administration asks Congress to appropriate a billion dollars for further and faster ship building.

Industrial preparation for war received substantial assistance from the large manufacturing interests of the country. The steel manufacturers voluntarily gave the Government exceptionally advantageous prices for all materials it needs and arranged to give it also priority in delivery. Oil men made similar arrangements. The wool men stopped transaction until they learned what the desires of the Government were, holding the entire supply at the first call of the Government.

Many wealthy men offered yachts and power boats to the Government for free use during the war.

Some disposition manifested itself among smaller interests not to follow this lead, but it was not extensive, and the power to commandeer, provided in so many bills pending in Congress,

will take care of it all if any of the bills pass, as seems most likely.

Pending enactment of the general censorship authority asked in the Espionage bill, the President established a censorship over cables and telegraphs and telephones to foreign countries by executive order. The first day of its operation in New York more than 40,000 words were passed without stopping one.

At Washington, Secretary Lansing of the State Department, issued orders to his subordinates forbidding them to give any information whatever to newspaper men under pain of dismissal. The Attorney General took similar position. Then there was established a Government daily publication, called the Official Bulletin, with the avowed purpose of presenting official proclamations, executive orders, statutes and "all other subjects related to the prosecution of the war to which publicity may properly be given."

Food prices continued to mount throughout the month. Crop prospects were not encouraging, despite the utmost efforts of the Government to stimulate production. The wheat situation on May 1, was the worst for thirteen years. President Wilson issued a fervent appeal to the farmers of the country, and many organizations were effected to supply seed, or funds, or assist in securing labor for farms. Washington began an official inquiry into the increases of food prices, attended by representatives of nearly all the States.

While all this was going on, and the furor over the British and French Commissions was absorbing the attention of the country, the Italian Commission arrived unheralded in New York and went to a hotel instead of being entertained as the other commissions were.

Congress having authorized the borrowing of seven billions for war purposes began to make specific provision for spending some of it. Army and Navy estimates aggregating more than three billions were submitted, and the House Urgent Deficiency appropriation bill, to meet some of these estimates, carried \$2,699,485,000. That was in addition to the regular army appropriation bill of a little less than three hundred millions.

As reported to the Senate the bill carried more than three billion dollars.

The needs of transportation in France and Russia especially call for immediate assistance. The railway committee of the Advisory Commission of the National Defense Council plans early shipment of materials—rolling stock, rails, etc.,—and the Government has called for nine regiments of volunteers engineers, to be sent to France at the earliest possible moment, to help in regenerating the French railways. Many practical railway men will go to Russia.

American Socialists and labor men are exerting themselves to hold the Russian radicals from yielding to German intrigue.

A special force of about a thousand American surgeons is also being made ready to go to the fighting zone.

Nor is it to be overlooked that the American steamer *Mongolia* reported that she sighted a submarine off the coast of England on April 19th, and shattered the periscope. The commander of the U-boat was killed.

III.

(May 18th — June 16th.)

The period of about four weeks covered by this review of American participation in the "War of 1917"—as it has been named officially by our Government—opened with the approval by the President of "Public — No. 12 — 65th Congress," the so-called "Draft Act" authorizing the President to raise by "selective draft" the forces necessary to supplement the Regular Army and the National Guard in battle against the Germans. It was on May 18th that Mr. Wilson signed the draft bill. Immediately he issued his proclamation notifying the country of the new law, the calling attention, in memorable phrase, to the fact that "it is not an army that we must shape and train for war; it is a nation."

That proclamation fixed June 5th as the day for the registration, under the new law, of all young men who had

passed their twenty-first birthday but had not yet attained their thirty-first birthday, the day, to quote the President again, "upon which all shall present themselves for assignment to their tasks."

This act contained a provision authorizing the President to raise four divisions of infantry by voluntary enlistment. This provision was designed to warrant the acceptance by the President of the services of former President Theodore Roosevelt, who had offered to raise one or more divisions of men exempt under the terms of the draft, for immediate service. Upon issuing his formal proclamation the President issued also a statement announcing that "at any rate at the present stage of the war" he would not avail himself of this authority. Coincidentally announcement was made at the War Department that it had been determined to send an expeditionary force of about one division of regular troops to France as early as practicable, under command of Major General John J. Pershing.

The "Roosevelt division" had been the subject of much controversy. Its leaders issued a statement announcing the disbandment of the men who had enrolled with him, and urging all who could find other means of rendering service to their country to do so.

The four weeks following the signing of the draft bill witnessed a threefold development of American war activities. First there has been actual military and naval participation. American men and American warships have arrived in the theater of action. At least one destroyer *Flotilla* has been taking part along with British ships in the hunt for German submarines. Other naval vessels have arrived in French waters, and an American squadron has been reported in South American water. Various medical units have reached France preparatory to active service. General Pershing himself, with his staff, has reached Europe and been received with great enthusiasm and cordially in both England and France. They are already at work in France making preparations for the arrival of the men of the division. The enlistment of engineer and other special troops for early service in France is proceeding, and vigorous efforts are making to secure early service of considerable numbers of medical officers.

Second, there has been methodical, steady and patient organization, proceeding in a regular, orderly manner, without the hysteria too often displayed by Americans under somewhat similar circumstances, and with materially less evidence of confusion, blunder and useless delay.

Third, much effort has been expended in Congress, and some accomplishment achieved, in the way of equipping the Administration with further emergency war powers. The measures upon which complete agreement by both Senate and House was reached were not numerous, but some of their provisions were of extreme importance.

The censorship voluntarily imposed upon themselves by the newspapers and other publication of the country finds its counterpart in the conduct of the people generally. The conspicuous feature of the month is the willingness of the American people to support strong handling of war problems without asking delicate questions and insisting upon full though embarrassing replies. A striking illustration of the effectiveness of this voluntary censorship, and of this popular self-restraint, was the return to France of Marshal Joffre and M. Viviani, which was not published or even hinted at publicly here until their safe arrival in Paris was announced there. Another was the departure of General Pershing and his staff, unmentioned until they were safe in England. Another was the similarly-treated return home of Mr. Balfour and other members of the British mission. Another was the case of the destroyers. In all these cases first public announcement came from Europe, at the close instead of at the beginning of the incidents. Troop trains passing through American villages these days are greeted and cheered by citizens who understand the serious import of it all and who ask no questions of who they are, whence they come or where they go.

The first phase of organization work under the draft bill culminated on June 5th in the registration of approximately nine and a half millions of young men for possible service in some military unit. Elaborate plans for this registration, covering the entire country, had been made in the office of the Provost Marshal General of the army at Washington. As the preparations for registration progressed, there was much

talk of active opposition from one element or another of the people. Pacifists, anarchists, socialists, pro-Germans and those too lazy or too timid to fight, acted in harmony if not in alliance, to oppose the draft, the registration and the war, and made so much talk that it was easy to believe that something serious might be attempted on registration day.

The Government prepared carefully to meet any development such opposition might inspire, but the experiences of registration day proved that there was no general organized opposition, and that most of the preliminary threatening was only "the sound of the wind and the voice of the crane." A few arrests were made for refusal to register, the defendants constituting a collection of cowards, congenial slackers and professional objectors. In a few cases trial has been held and conviction followed by severe sentence. The settled policy of the Government has been leniency—where dangerous motive for delinquency was not shown—belated registration being still permitted under careful restriction, and after satisfactory sworn explanation. But the display of disloyal or treasonable spirit has been sharply and severely punished.

Preliminary estimates by the Census Bureau were that a total of 10,298,000 registrations might be expected. Early reports indicated that this expectation had been exceeded. But official returns showed that some States had fallen from twenty to nearly fifty per cent. below the Census Bureau figures. Other States exceeded the estimates. Returns from adjoining States sometimes varied widely. Missouri, for instance, registered only 71.6 per cent. of her estimate, while Illinois returned 104.7 per cent.

After the registration it was realized that the census estimate had not taken account of the men already in service in the Regular Army, Navy, Marine Corps, National Guard and other affiliated organizations, who were not required to register. Deduction of some 600,000 should have been made from the estimate on this account, with further allowance for the cessation of immigration during the last three years. However, figures from the States which have reported up to the time of this writing show an average registration in them of more than ninety-two per cent. of the census estimate.

Announcement was made by the Provost Marshal General that plans were practically complete for the appointment of exemption boards to act upon the claims for exemption put forward by a considerable percentage of those registering. Two broad classes of exemption are recognized, agricultural and industrial, it being the purpose of the Government not merely to organize an army but also to equip and feed it after it has been formed, as well as to continue in as large measure as possible the steady flow of food and other war supplies to our allies.

The Provost Marshall General is also practically ready to begin designation of registered men for selection for the first contingent of the new army. The law provides that the new army shall be raised in units of 500,000 men. It also provides for the draft of recruit training units. The War Department has announced that these units will be organized on the basis of one battalion for every four of the army, and at the same time so that the first draft will take 625,000 men.

Meantime work proceeds steadily at the various camps where selected young men are in training to be made officers of the new army. The supply corps of the army labored at top speed to procure adequate equipment, and to provide suitable cantonments for the training of the new army when it has been drafted. Many measures of genuine preparedness, although belatedly undertaken, have been driven forward, and the purpose has been emphasized to prepare the way first before calling masses of men together. There is evident intention not to repeat many of the glaring mistakes of the spring of 1898. The War Department announced its intention not to select the men for the new forces until about September 1st. That would give time for completion of the equipment and training camps necessary for their organization and training, and also for completion of the course of training for the young men now preparing to become officers of the line in the new organization. The War Department announced, on June 8th, that a second series of training camps for officers would be held from August 27th to November 26th, preparing the way for the draft of the second contingent of 625,000 men.

Throughout the period covered by this review a great nationwide campaign has been carried on under the direction

of the Secretary of the Treasury for the successful flotation of the Liberty Loan of 1917, in which two billion dollars of three and one-half per cent. Government War Bonds are offered for public subscription. The subscription books closed at 3:00 o'clock on the afternoon of June 15th, but before that time it was evident that the loan was a huge success. The total subscription announced as this goes to press reach almost three billions, an over-subscription of nearly fifty per cent. The enormous over-subscription is the more remarkable from the fact that the loan carried only three and one-half per cent. interest, whereas, especially since the influence of war prosperity began to be felt in the United States, investment carrying a materially higher return has been easy. The Liberty Loan called to the patriotism of the country, and the response is a final and crushing answer to the pro-German sneer and the war is "not popular," and that there "is no enthusiasm for it."

The Liberty Loan campaign was carried on not only by an organization which embraced practically every banking agency in the country, but was participated in also the thousands of corporations, partnerships, and business firms, as well as individuals everywhere. Wealthy men and powerful financial institutions responded with single subscriptions that in numerous cases meant the investment of many millions by individuals. Great industrial concerns subscribed freely on behalf of their employees, to whom they gave the privilege of taking bonds on the installment plan. Banks generally offered the same facilities to the public, and in this way the humblest citizens were enabled to contribute their share toward the memorable success.

The few Rockefellers, Morgans, and other immensely wealthy men subscribed in multiple millions, but many thousands of laborers, clerks, housemaids and other honest citizens in the lesser walks of life matched this millionaire patriotism with subscriptions of their hard earned and hard saved fifties and hundreds.

While all this important work was going on under powers already conferred upon the Government by Congress, the national legislature labored on a series of measures containing additional grants of power, many of them of such magnitude

and scope that simple mention of them in previous years would have been sufficient to call down an overwhelming flood of opposition. But the Congressional response to the Administration demand for war powers has been one, if not the chief, of the marvels of American participation in the War of 1917.

When this review month opened there were pending in Congress two bills which together were designed to give the Government complete power over the whole food problem, in all its phases, production, distribution and consumption. Also there was pending a measure appropriating more than three billion dollars for war expenditures, in which there was included a provision of \$500,000,000 for purchase and construction of ships, with an authorization of \$250,000,000 additional for the same purpose. Another pending bill imposed taxes by which the House, that framed it, expected to raise \$1,800,000,000 annually to meet part of the expenses of the war.

Probably the most celebrated of all measures pending at the opening of this review month was the so-called "Espionage Bill," which included the provision ardently desired by the Administration for the establishment of a government censorship on newspapers and other publications as well as another provision urgently demanded by the Administration empowering the Government to exercise complete control over all exports from this country during the war. The Administration "Enemy Trading Act," and "Priority Bill" were in course of preparation. They were completed, duly introduced, favorably reported from their respective committees, and one of them, the Priority Bill, after receiving much wordy attention in the Senate, was passed by that body on June 16th.

But two of the more important of these measures reached the final Congressional stage during the review month. Both have been signed by the President as this was written. They were the Urgent Appropriation and Espionage Bills. The Appropriation Bill had been held up at almost the last moment because some alert genius had discovered within it a provision for the purchase of a naval training site at a price which naturally suggested a gouge of the Government. Many such provisions in river and harbor, or public buildings bills escape unfriendly notice or comment, but this one consumed days in the

Senate and House, sent the bill back to conference, finally invoked the special aid of the President, and went through at last revised so as specifically to put the whole responsibility for what ever expenditure is made upon the President. If that does not make him supremely solicitous about items in the pending River and Harbor Bill it would be interesting to know what would.

Earnest endeavor on the part of the Administration was unable to overcome Congressional opposition to the proposed press censorship provision of the Espionage Bill. In striking contrast, there was almost no consideration of the chapter giving the President power under which he might, if so disposed, throttle the foreign trade of the United States. The like of it has not been heard of in American legislation since the Presidency of Thomas Jefferson, and the experience of that time has been forgotten for three generations.

The proposed censorship evoked the vigorous personal support of the President. He urged it in letters to Congressmen, and in a special conference with Congressional leaders. Compromise offers were made, providing for jury trial, without avail. Amazing and startling publicity work was indulged in on behalf of the Administration for this provision, with tales of spy work and the transmission of information to the enemy, all without the desired effect. The bill went through Congress without an avowed censorship provision. But when the conference report was finally agreed on, on June 12th, it contained, in Subsection "b" of Section 2, of Title 1, a provision that whoever, in time of war, "with intent that the same shall be communicated to the enemy, shall collect, record, publish or communicated, or attempt to elicit any information with respect to the movement, numbers, description, condition or disposition of any of the armed forces, ships, aircrafts or war materials of the United States, or with respect to the plans or conduct, or supposed plans or conduct of any naval or military operations, or with respect to any works or measures undertaken for or connected with, or intended for the fortification or defense of any place, or any other information relating to the public defense, which might be useful to the enemy, shall

be punished by death or by imprisonment for not more than thirty years."

Of course newspaper publication of war news is not made "with intent that the same shall be communicated to the enemy" but it is bound to make such communication possible. Much depends upon the official construction and application of that provision.

The Department of Commerce, which will administer the power to control exports, has let it be known that that Administration will have steadily in mind the prevention of food or other supplies reaching the enemy; the controversion of supplies needed in the United States; and the conservation of ocean tonage, by the consolidation or prevention of certain shipments. The control will be exercised through a system of licenses and will largely if not wholly supplant the control hitherto exercised by the British.

Besides these measures Administration concern is felt chiefly for the two food bills, the Priority Bill and the Enemy Trading Bill. The first food bill—to stimulate production—passed the House on May 28th, and the Senate on June 2d. The action of the Senate, and its request for a conference, were duly reported to the House, but a feeling developed there that the two food measures should be considered practically together, and so the conference was not ordered until June 12th.

Draft of the second food bill was completed during the first week in June. It is designed to secure government control of food distribution, and the President has announced that it will be administered through an agency specially created at the head of which he will appoint Herbert C. Hoover, the young American who has made himself world famous as head of the American Commission for Belgian Relief. This bill has encountered much opposition because of vast powers it proposes to give the food controller. President Wilson, Mr. Houston, the Secretary of Agriculture, numerous other Administration officials and Mr. Hoover, have all exerted themselves to secure early action, declaring that it is absolutely essential that it shall become law by July 1st. But there is no assurance that it will be passed by that date. Meantime the harvesting of the new crop has begun, and the Government

complains that it is without power to prevent wasteful use of or speculation in the new supply of food grains.

The War Revenue bill passed the House on May 23d, after a proposal to tax cotton \$2.50 a bale had been violently rejected by the solid south. The Senate Finance Committee has devoted much time to amending the House provisions, thereby provoking mutterings of resentment from the south end of the Capitol. The Senate revision of the Tax bill has been accompanied by a great flood of prohibition proposals. They have taken almost every conceivable legislative form, ranging all the way up to constitutional amendment resolutions providing for absolute prohibition. About half the Senators have tried their hand at framing prohibition bills to be submitted as amendments to the Tax bill. Many of them forbid the use of grain as distillers' material. One scheme, which seems to have material support, proposes a prohibitive tax on grain used for distillation of liquors, such as \$20 a bushel.

The controversy over the building program of the Shipping Board's Emergency Corporation, which has smouldered ever since it became known that General Goethals, head of the corporation, did not think much of the indiscriminate enthusiasm for wooden ships, reached an acute stage on June 7th. In a speech at New York, before the Iron and Steel Institute, on May 26th, General Goethals expressed his disbelief in the optimistic talk of some of the wooden ship advocates, and remarked that his observation of boards had taught him that they were "usually long, narrow and wooden." Chairman Denman, of the Shipping Board, responded in a public statement on May 28th, and it was then announced that the controversy was settled. Mr. Denman did not contend that wooden construction was as good as steel, but did assert that it was possible by using wooden construction as well as steel, to secure an additional number of ships promptly.

On June 7th Messrs. Clark and Eustis, the two engineers of the Corporation who were the original proponents of wooden construction, made public statements sharply criticising General Goethals. Next day General Goethals publicly dismissed them both from the service of the Emergency Corporation. Later there were symptoms of a public renewal of the row, and

it seems clear that it is impossible to harmonize the conflicting views, both of which are very strongly held.

The close of the review month is marked by the arrival of the American mission in Russia. Mr. Stevens, with his railroad engineers, after proceeding slowly across from Siberia, inspecting the road and making suggestions for reorganization as he went; and Mr. Root, with the diplomatic mission, reached Petrograd on June 13th, and were enthusiastically received. Before his arrival there the State Department at Washington made public the note from President Wilson which Mr. Root was to deliver to the Russian Government. With his usual felicity of expression, Mr. Wilson set forth the purposes of the American Government in entering the war, and stated the case of the Allies so strongly and clearly that both England and Italy have already announced their adoption of the note as their own statement of their own cases.

One statement of this note is especially remarkable. In a single phrase Mr. Wilson destroyed for all time the German plea for a peace on the basis of the *status quo ante*. "It was the *status quo ante*," wrote the President, "out of which this iniquitous war issued forth."

IV.

(June 17th — July 17th.)

Two events of exceptional significance and interest mark the fourth month of American participation in the war between autocracy and democracy—the arrival of American fighting men in considerable force on French soil, to take up there the final training preliminary to their entrance into the actual conflict; and the exhilarating renewal of the Russian offensive in Galicia, with its immediate and striking successes. The first is the chief purely American event of the month, certainly from the spectacular point of view, although it may not have all the ultimate importance that attaches to certain other circumstances which, even though they are clearly beginnings, have hardly attained as yet the stature of full growth. The

second, being Russian, and therefore not technically entitled to consideration in a review of merely American activities, yet does have a sure claim to inclusion here not only in the tie that binds the newest of the great world democracies to us, but also in the steady encouragement and the strenuous efforts at assistance that have proceeded from America to Russia.

Our domestic situation during this month has been one chiefly of Congressional and Administrative wrangling; of bickering over proposals of legislation, or execution of laws already passed, or, sometimes, regarding arrangements that it was attempted to effect extra legally and *ultra vires*. The situation at home is still marked by confusion and uncertainty especially with regard to some of the most important of national equipment for the war. But as this is written, just at the close of the review period, there seems to be developing a better tendency, and the fifth month now promises to open, as the fourth did, with a distinctly successful achievement.

Subscriptions for the Liberty Loan, which closed just as the preceding instalment of this review went to press, aggregated the colossal sum of \$3,035,226,850. This was an oversubscription of more than fifty per cent. More than four million different subscriptions were received, representing a national participation in a first loan not accomplished by any other of the nations involved in this conflict. This oversubscription made necessary the curtailment of allotments to certain subscribers. The Treasury Department ruled that full allotment would be made to all subscribers taking bonds to the amount of \$10,000 or less, and that a graduated reduction of allotments would be made on subscriptions above that sum, so that the greatest percentage of reduction would fall on the largest subscriptions.

The Liberty Loan campaign was followed immediately by a Red Cross drive to secure a hundred millions by private donation for the work of the Red Cross with our armies. This campaign, also, was successful, although not heavily oversubscribed as was the Government loan.

As the payments to the Treasury on the Liberty bonds bring funds under the disposition of the Government the amount of the American loans to our Allies, as provided in the seven

billion dollar bond bill, mounts steadily. It has now exceeded \$1,300,000,000. The United States is taking a large part in financing England and some of the other Allies, the loan to England now aggregating nearly three-quarters of a billion.

General Pershing had been in Paris long enough to have both that side of the Atlantic and this become accustomed to the idea of the American general and his staff working in the French capital, when this country was thrilled on the afternoon of June 27th by the publication of dispatches from a "French port" announcing the arrival of the first contingent of the American soldiers who are to fight the Germans under Pershing's orders. The departure of these troops had been conducted with such quiet skill that the vast majority of Americans, even in the port from which they sailed, had not the least notion that they had gone, and the first general American information that they had left was conveyed in the announcement of their arrival in France. The news that they had crossed the ocean successfully was received with very much the same manifestations of emotion that would have greeted the receipt of the news of a victory.

But it was followed promptly by word from Washington that the publication had been premature, and there was obvious perturbation among the different offices of censorship in the capital. It appeared, at length, that the several sections of the expedition had not all arrived when the first publication was made, and it had been feared in Washington that this premature publication might endanger the safety of the later sections. However, they all arrived safely, and General Pershing said that "not a man was lost, nor was there any serious illness." The French newspapers had been restrained from printing the news until the despatches of the American correspondents were permitted to come through, some days after the arrival of the first section. But the British papers printed the news on the first day. Just when there was a disposition in this country to make inquiry into these circumstances, on the afternoon of July 3d, the Committee on Public Information in Washington, whose chairman is credited with being the head of the censorate at the national capital, issued an announcement that the troop ships had been attacked twice by German

submarines—once well this side of what had been regarded as the possible danger zone, and again the next day. The first attack was said to have been at night, in considerable force, and the Information Committee reported that it had been repulsed by superb work on the part of the American warships convoying the transports. The Committee announced that its report was based on an official report from Rear Admiral Gleaves who commanded the convoy.

This publication stirred the country profoundly. But it was followed by a very singular circumstance. An Associated Press correspondent, who was traveling to France on one of the convoying warships, telegraphed a categorical denial that there had been any attack on the troop ships. The official report from Rear Admiral Gleaves was not made public, and as this is written a resolution is pending in the Senate, calling on the Navy Department for full information concerning the affair.

The landing of American troops in France was the occasion of the greatest enthusiasm among the people of the port where they landed. The Americans were promptly christened with a name which seems likely to stick to them as long as they are in the service in foreign lands. "Sammee! Sammee!" shouted the enthusiastic French. "Vive Sammee!"

The report that the troop ships had been attacked by submarines led of course to a sharp outburst of spy talk. It was asserted that the Germans must have known of the sailing and route of the troop ships, and must have had information on which to arrange these attacks. Whether this affair was the cause of it or not there has been a tightening of the surveillance of enemy aliens, and several prominent Germans have been interned, including one man who was an assistant to Dr. Albert, the German financial agent in New York; another who was a prominent electrician and a well-known New York City banker.

Meanwhile the work of preparation for the new American Army has gone forward rapidly and steadily, and with extremely little fuss and feathers. The organization of the preliminaries for the selection by draft of the 500,000 men for the first contingent of the new National Army, and of the additional 125,000 for the reserve battalions for this first contingent is practically completed, and the draft is likely to be made even before this

appears in print. The order for mobilization of the National Guard has been issued, and before this is on the press many of the Guardsmen will be in their concentration stations. At the same time an immense amount of work has been done in preparing the equipment for the new armies, securing the supplies of clothing, food and other materials, and making ready the cantonments where the different divisions of the National Army are to be trained. Contracts for the building work at these cantonments have been let and every effort is making to push the work so as to have as many as possible of them near readiness for the men early in September. So with some of its men actually in France, some hundreds of thousands more about to go into camp preparatory to going to France, and another half million about to be selected to begin their training, the Army is making every effort to get where it can strike effective blows.

Very little information has been permitted to reach the public concerning the activities of the Navy. Announcement of successful recruiting is made, and of the letting of contracts, construction of submarine chasers, together with information from South America of the arrival of an American squadron at Montevideo. And Secretary Daniels has asked Congress to appropriate \$45,000,000 for navy aeroplanes, hydroplanes and seaplanes, and another million for more destroyers and chasers and boats of that general type.

The air phase of military preparation has received much attention throughout the month. The Board on Aircraft Production, of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense, has recommended a huge appropriation for this construction. Men of eminence in various lines which gives them authority have argued that the expenditure of half a billion dollars or more would be certain to end the war soon and favorably. They want to "put out the eyes" of the Germans in the air. This proposal has received marked attention and wide support. President Wilson himself is said to be strongly in favor of something of this kind. Some of the men advocating the measure have urged the appropriation of a billion dollars for airplane construction. The aircraft Production Board estimates that an output of 2,000 airplanes a

month can be accomplished by November. The figure most favored for appropriation is \$600,000,000. On July 14th—anniversary of the fall of the Bastile—the House passed unanimously the bill authorizing the President to construct airplanes without number and to increase the signal corps of the army without limit in this direction and appropriating \$640,000,000 for these purposes. Almost unlimited power, authority and money were given to the President without hampering restrictions. Hearing had been held by the House Committee on this bill in secret for a week. It was argued that information as to American plans for aircraft production should not be made public, and the effort was to produce a bill that would confer the authority without giving undue information to the enemy.

While our troops were landing in France and getting ready to encounter the deadly products of German ingenuity, and while at home Army and Navy were exerting themselves to the utmost in further preparation, Congress has spent almost the entire month in wrangling over the question as to whether or not it will grant power to the President to control the production and distribution of necessities. That one bill has been the unfinished business in the Senate for the whole month, and has been mauled and twisted and amended and altered until its best friends would hardly recognize it, so that at length Senators Martin and Simmons, the two leaders of the majority party in the Senate, openly appealed to the President for his advice and assistance. The Senate having agreed by unanimous consent to vote on the bill and all amendments to action on July 21st, the prospect is that some kind of food control bill will be passed by the Senate before it adjourns on that day. The House passed this bill on June 23d, after a week of discussion. The final vote was 365 to 5. Just before taking final action on the bill the House adopted an amendment that no foods, food materials or feeds should be used in the production of alcoholic beverages, except for medical and scientific and government uses. This bill went at once to the Senate, and was substituted for the measure then under consideration in the Senate. It immediately opened the whole range of the prohibition question in the Senate, and immensely complicated

the question of food control. Opponents of food control at once seized upon this prohibition feature of the bill as a means of defeating it, and others who are more interested in prohibition than in food control took advantage of this opportunity to secure action on their favorite measure.

Literally scores of amendments were drafted and submitted, dealing with all conceivable phases of the question of food control and prohibition.

Meantime the first food bill, providing for the greatly needed survey or census, which was passed by both houses over six weeks ago, is held up in conference awaiting action of the control bill.

While this wrangling went on the President and Herbert Hoover, whom Mr. Wilson had announced as his choice for food administrator, made repeated public appeals for action. It was pointed out that the new crop is coming forward, and that because of the delay on this bill the market is absolutely quiescent; that if anything is to be done it must be done quickly. Still the Senate could not be hurried. The President wrote to Mr. Hoover asking him to begin his organization any way and to do what he could without the enactment of the law. Thereupon Mr. Hoover issued a public appeal to the women of the country, urging them to join the Food Administration by signing a pledge card agreeing to work for the conservation of food and prevention of waste. "Food will decide the war," said Mr. Hoover in this appeal. Mrs. Wilson, wife of the President, was one of the first to register in the Women's Good Army. Mr. Hoover pointed out that the saving of a single one-pound loaf of bread per week by each of the hundred million people of the United States would mean the releasing of 100,000,000 bushels of wheat for shipment to our Allies in the course of a year. As an incentive to saving and an illustration of what the united action of the American people could accomplish he showed also that the saving of two cents per person per meal would amount in a year to more than the first issue of the Liberty Loan, or over two billion dollars.

Before the Senate Committee on Agriculture Mr. Hoover testified that speculators had taken more than \$150,000,000 from the country in flour alone, and that the entire output of

the American canning industry for 1917 had been sold before any of the materials reached any of the canners.

As the bill stands in the Senate at this writing it covers a wide range of products besides foods, feeds and fuels, and includes a provision that no foods or feeds shall be used for the product on of alcohol for beverage purposes, at the same time giving the President power to commandeer stocks of distilled liquors in bond and to say whether the prohibition of the use of food materials shall apply also to beer and light wines. This is a power that the President does not care to exercise and he advised Senators who consulted him late in June not to include beer and wines in the bill. But the President has asked the Senators for a good many powers which they were not at all pleased at granting, and this beer prohibition question seemed to offer an opportunity to grant him something willingly.

Conferences between Democratic and Republican leaders are reported to have reached agreement on a measure creating a Food Board of three, subject to confirmation by the Senate—where Mr Hoover has some virulent opponents—and limiting the control to shipments in interstate commerce. That emasculates the bill and is described as wholly unsatisfactory to the Administration.

The House has occupied part of the month by putting through several minor war measures, and two important ones, that known as the "Enemy Trading Bill" and the bill providing for unlimited aeroplane construction. The House passed a Rivers and Harbors Bill, a measure increasing the membership of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the bill known as the "Priority Bill" conferring on the President the power to determine preference between shipments by rail, one of the less controversial of the important war measures. The Senate found time, between bouts with the food control bill, to pass a "daylight saving" bill, which is not to go into effect until next year, and consideration of which the House has postponed until the next session.

Acting under authority of the so-called "embargo" section of the Espionage act of the President, on June 22d, signed an executive order creating an Exports Council, for the control of exports. It consists of the Secretaries of State, Agriculture

and Commerce, and the Food Administrator. It has already prepared for an Advisory Board which shall do the actual work of controlling exports, and a bureau of licenses has been erected in the Department of Commerce. On July 8th, the President issued a proclamation setting the exports control in motion from July 15th. In accordance with the terms of the statute the President gave a list of the articles to be controlled, including fuels, foods and food grains, fodder and feeds, iron and steel and their products, ship plates, arms, munition, explosives and so forth. The countries named included practically every one listed in the geography, so that the Exports Council is now equipped with authority to lay a complete prohibition upon the shipments of any of these materials from the United States if it finds cause for doing so. Our European Allies are basing great hopes upon this American controller of exports. Figures have been published by the Government to show that very great supplies of food and feeds have been going into Germany through Holland and Sweden especially. Government reports showed that food sufficient for 7,700,000 soldiers for a year went into Germany from Holland alone. The neutral countries, especially Scandinavia and Holland, have manifested great anxiety over the exercise of this new power by this Government. President Wilson, in announcing it, explained that our purpose would be to supply first ourselves, then our Allies and then to do what we can for neutrals. But the figures published of the situation among our allies and of our own crop prospects leave very little supply for the neutrals.

The Root Commission to Russia, which had just reached its post when the last instalment of this review was prepared, has now concluded its labors with every indication of success and is about to return to the United States. In a speech on the occasion of their reception by the Council of Ministers in Petrograd, Mr. Root said, "We fight for your freedom as well as for ours, and we ask that you fight for our freedom as well as for your own." In reply Minister Tereschtenko said, "We shall fight together to secure liberty, freedom and happiness for all the world." It was after that that the new Russian drive in Galicia began. While this was going on in Russia the new Russian mission was received with enthusiasm in this country.

In receiving Ambassador Bakhmeteff, President Wilson promised new Russia the "full support and steadfast friendship" of America.

In reply to the Belgian Mission, which had presented him a letter from King Albert, the President made a significant statement regarding the conditions which will satisfy the United States when the time comes to talk of peace. He said that America "welcomed the opportunity to express our solemn determination that on the inevitable day of victory Belgium shall be restored to the place she has so nobly won."

While Congress—especially the Senate—has been backing and filling over the question of food control there has been a somewhat similar indecision among some of the executive officers over measures of war preparation, chiefly prices for different war materials, especially steel and coal. On June 20th the Federal Trade Commission made a report to the President and Congress proposing the pooling of all coal and coke production and distribution, and of all water and rail transportation, the transportation companies to receive a reasonable rate of compensation for the public use of their properties and the coal and coke producers to have a uniform profit per ton. Several hundred coal operators gathered in Washington late in June in conference on coal prices, and were addressed very frankly by Secretary Lane, of the Department of the Interior, one of the members of the Council of National Defense. Subsequently the operators agreed to the principle of government price fixing, and in conference with Mr. Lane and a member of the Federal Trade Commission agreed upon a price of \$3.00 a ton at the mines for bituminous coal. The next day Mr. Baker, Secretary of War, repudiated this price and termed it, "exorbitant, oppressive and unjust." After there had been time for interference by the President, Mr. Baker explained that he had not intended any reflection upon any one in what he said, but he did think \$3 too high.

Simultaneously there was much discussion over steel prices. Mr. Denman, chairman of the Shipping Board, let it be known that General Goethals, with whom he had a difference of opinion as to wooden or steel ship construction, was inclined to make contracts for ship steel at \$95 a ton, which was a good deal

higher than he could approve. The navy was getting steel for \$65 a ton and Mr. Denman thought the Shipping Board ought to get it for \$56 a ton. The upshot of this was a visit to Washington of a committee of the Iron and Steel Institute composed of the heads of several of the big steel concerns. They reached the capital just as the President issued a statement denouncing profiteering, assailing ship owners for high freight rates and declaring that fair prices must prevail, and that our Allies and the public generally must have the same prices that the Government gets. The steel conference resulted in an agreement by the steel men to furnish the Government all they possible can produce, and to have the prices determined costs, upon which a fair profit is to be allowed.

Thus the fourth month of our war with Germany closes with something actually accomplished and a fair prospect of considerably more.

WHAT HORSE FOR THE ARMY?*

*Hitherto unpublished letters from French Cavalry Officers to En-
lighten our Government which is about to spend
Millions of Dollars in the Purchase
of Horses.*

WE are reliably informed that our Government is about to purchase \$67,000,000 worth of horses for the Army!

In view of that fact it is the duty of all horsemen, as well as a matter of patriotic interest to every citizen to help the Government in arriving at the best types of horses to be obtained and the best methods for obtaining them.

Last March, *The Rider and Driver* wrote to Mr. Baker, the Secretary of War, urging upon him reforms in the methods of

*Reprint from September 1, 1917 issue of "*The Rider and Driver*" by the kind permission of the Editor.

buying which have been since attempted through a change in the personnel of buyers from military men to civilians.*

Whether this will work out satisfactorily remains to be seen.

There is no question as to the good faith of all concerned.

As exclusively reported in one of our previous issues, a number of young gentlemen representing the sports of polo, hunting and racing have been given commissions in the Army as Captains and Majors and are now distributed throughout the country buying horses. We were informed recently that one of these gentlemen has reported that he cannot find more than eight or ten horses per day. This is undoubtedly due to the very high standard he would naturally exact.

Horses for the Army must be selected for much harder work, less care and feed than if they were intended for even the most strenuous of sports as in the latter they receive most careful training and the best of care.

It has been suggested to us by a gentlemen formerly in the business of buying and selling horses that "second-hand" horses would be better than so-called "green" horses and that these could be obtained in all large cities at the rate of at least 100 per day.

The advantage of this kind of horse would be principally its hard condition, enabling it to go immediately into hard work, whereas, the green horse would have to be trained for a long while, not only as to sights and sounds, but also as to muscle building, hardening of feet and bone and development of heart and lungs. If the second-hand horse were drafted for the first shipment abroad, or even later shipments up to six months, or a year, the green horses could be purchased in the meantime and gotten ready to take their places later on.

The fancy horse, like the fancy uniform, is not practical in a campaign.

The officer may have a prancing, beautiful charger, but when he goes into field work he puts it aside and takes on his work horse as well as his working clothes.

*We wonder what argument could have been advanced in favor of this change. We know of none.—*Editor*.

Man and horse must be inured to hardship of every kind and able to "rustle" for their living in the country into which they are projected.

The type of horse for the Army, no matter what branch of the service, should be a short-legged animal with the best of feet and bone. His size and weight should vary, of course, according to the purpose to which he is to be applied. For



IMANZADA

A half-bred Arab of good size and muscular development, winner of a charger class at New York State Fair Horse Show, whose son, Kingfisher, made a remarkable record for endurance under Major Frank Tompkins, U. S. A., on his memorable raid after Villa into Mexico.

heavy artillery the draft horse is essential; for flying artillery the lighter breeds of harness horse could be used, such as the hackney and trotter as well as the thoroughbred. The cavalry horse for officer as well as trooper should also be graded in size but above all things should be short backed, as between the withers of a sloping shoulder and the close coupling of the ribs

at the loins and while covering ground, so to speak, must be, also "close to the ground," meaning without much "daylight underneath," the most essential attributes in providing balance so absolutely necessary.

A long-legged horse is bound to be wobbly and although fast at the gallop cannot be handy in maneuvering.



SHAGYA

A grand type of short-legged, short-backed, large boned stallion, whose descendants up to Shagya XVIII are still in the stud at Babolna, one of the Hungarian studs.

The *Rider and Driver* has no axe to grind, or special breed to advocate, but believes that horses of the type we have picked out for illustration in this article represent visually the kind of horses that should be produced.

Their breeding, whether Arab, Thoroughbred, Hackney, Saddlebred, or Trotter, is important only as it fixes these types and imparts to the constitution nervous energy, endurance and courage!

In a word, the buyers of horses for the Army must be eclectic, basing their selection upon the foundations so well established in the Government Studs of Europe as the result of years of experience.

For illustrations herewith we are indebted to Colonel Spencer Borden, who several years ago made a tour of those



BUONA VISTA.

An excellent type of thoroughbred stallion of the short-backed, short-legged, good boned, big joined and good footed variety, the Premier Stallion at Kisber, the Hungarian Government studs.

studs and wrote a book on the subject. We will not comment upon his well known fealty to the Arab horse, having with his sportsmanly consent selected the cuts according to our own judgment as to their representation of the proper types.

Fortunately, also, we are enabled through the courtesy of a friend to publish some letters from officers of high rank in the

French Army, which answer a circular letter sent out by Lieut. Col. Rhodes, Commandant at the Fort Riley Mounted School, also editor of the "U. S. CAVALRY JOURNAL," asking the opinions of cavalry officers at home and abroad.*



KOHEILAN

First prize pure Arab, Paris, 1900, representing the Hungarian Government studs, which in 1911 comprised three, 234 stallions, representing pure and half-bred English thoroughbreds, pure and half-bred Arabs and several cross breeds produced from Arab and thoroughbred blood; these are bred annually to about 130,000 mares producing an average of 100,000 horses foaled each year.

These have not been published hitherto, the Rhodes questions having been submitted to them by Major Frank Parker, U. S. A., now serving in France.

*We have these letters from the French officers and about eighty from our own officers. Some of them were published in the last number of the CAVALRY JOURNAL and others will follow.—*Editor*.

De Ribains, Colonel of Cavalry in the French Army, to Major F. Parker, of the American Army:

DEAR COMRADE:

You ask for my opinion on the subject of "Type of Horse for the Cavalry."

The question is so large, that a complete answer would call for a full history of horses. For such work I have neither time nor means of answering, especially at the present time.

On the other hand in a note which you sent me, Lieut. Col. Rhodes, Commandant in your Mounted Service School, asks certain precise questions to which you ask from me *personal and brief* answers which I hasten to give.

You will find them herewith.

Agree, my dear friend, to the expressions of my distinguished and devoted regards.

G. Q. G., May 7, 1917.

(Signed) DE RIBAINS.

Questions asked by Major F. Parker, U. S. Cavalry of Colonel De Ribains, Attache at General Headquarters, (reserve) of the French Army:

1. Proper height of cavalry horse?

I think the cavalry horse should not be over 15 hands 3 inches in height; taller than that he is less handy, less docile, less enduring, more difficult to feed, the rider has more trouble in saddling.

2. The Arab Horse?

I have had no practical experience with the African horse, but all who have used them agree in giving him credit for steadiness, and, in spite of his small size, his ability to go long distances under heavy weight. The fault they find with him is that he is short in his gaits, and rough to ride.

3. Proportion of pure blood desirable in an army horse?

A half-bred.

Crossing a strong mare, stout and well gaited, with a stallion of pure breed having substance himself, seems to prom-

ise the best results, capable of adaptability to the exigencies of active service in War, viz.:

Ability to live on the country.
Toughness and bottom.
Weight carrying ability.
Long and supple gaits.
Steadiness.

All of these indispensable qualities for a cavalry horse, whatever kind of warfare is encountered.

4. The thoroughbred horse?

In my career I have ridden a number of pure bred horses; it is among them that I choose my chargers; they have always proved satisfactory: nevertheless, *I have to admit that the thoroughbred horse demands sepecial care, and should not be considered in choosing a troop horse.*

In the future, if America wishes to establish a race of cavalry horses, it seems that among the many mares available, it should be possible to select a sufficient number, *first of the right type, secondly well tested*, to establish, with its pure bred stallions, a complete breeding plant, which would insure the possession of sufficient resources to remount its cavalry in a satisfactory manner.

G. Q. G., May 7, 1917.

(Signed) DE RIBAINS.

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY OF THE N. AND N.
E., ÉTAT MAJOR 3d BUREAU.

At G. Q. G., May, 1917.

TYPE OF HORSE FOR THE CAVALRY.

1. Height?

A cavalry horse should never be over 15.3. The best height is between 15 hands and 15.2.

It is easy to find among small horses such as are of the right type: near the ground, short and broad on the back, short and solid in limb, good feet, long underneath.

Their rations need not be so large as a big horse.

Grooming and saddling are easier.

Larger horses of suitable type, sufficiently compact, may be sometimes used as officers' mounts.

It is nearly always best in active service to have a horse of small height, say 15.1½ hands.

2. I have had no experience with Arab horses. But it is beyond question that the Arab horse, or the horse of Arab type is the most easily kept (*rustique*) of any horse we have in France. Now, the ability to live in the country (*rusticity*) is the first requirement for a cavalry horse. The horses of Nomadic peoples, Arabs, Cossacks, etc., make *excellent* cavalry in war.

3. Before the present war, general opinion held that a cavalry horse should be a *galloper*, offspring of a galloping mare.

Such a horse was a thoroughbred race horse, or the offspring of a thoroughbred.

Major Tompkins seems to criticise the thoroughbred, the race horse, too severely. Such a horse is not necessarily put to racing at two years of age, and used up at four. Further, he is not necessarily a weed, too long, flat, sided, etc. There were in France before the war, magnificent thoroughbred horses, big and able to carry weight. Many officers rode such horses, and our remount service sent a certain number to all the regiments every year. But in France by reason of his high cost, a horse has become a luxury to be "done up in cotton."

Infinite care, from the time he was weaned regulated the choice of his feed. The war horse in France could only be fed oats, to the exclusion of all other grain. Further, the War Department forbade any substitution; oats could not be exchanged for either corn or barley.

Extreme regularity was demanded in hours of work, rest, drink, feeding. The horse only worked during the most favorable hours of the day, and, without exception, was never saddled for more than two or three hours at a time. It was extremely uncommon, that, excepting when on maneuvers a horse was saddled all of one day, and camping in the open was unknown.

Under these circumstances there should be no surprise, that the extremely painful conditions of campaigning have given our cavalry a severe test. Further, the month of August, 1914, was extremely hot. It thus happened that the loss of horses in the average of our squadrons ran as high as fifty per cent. to the total by the middle of September. This waste fell on all kinds of horses; thoroughbreds, Anglo-Arab, half-bred, horses of no known breeding. The veterinarians recognized the condition of being dried-up (deshydrate) by excessive sweating and lack of drink; fatigue, loss of sleep carried the horses to a state of misery analogous to that of an animal *hunted to death*.

Horses ten years old, or more, stood up the best. As to degree of breeding, it seemed not to have any *great* influence on the powers of resistance. The chief factors of resistance seemed to be the conformation of the horse, his ability to carry his load, his adaptability to the exigencies of a new life, in fine his "rusticity" and temperament.

The cavalry horse of today must be able to march for a prolonged period at a rate of six and eight kilometers (four to five miles) an hour at the walk or trot without fatigue or worry, carrying a load of 150 kilos. (300 pounds.)

This calls for a horse of medium height, in good condition, *and well bred*. Breeding gives the nervous foundation, it supplies energy. And since we must have a horse able to get into a combat against other cavalry (exceptional but possible) the offspring of *pure-bred* animals will prove the best.

My opinion, therefore, is that crossing the breed-mares of the country with thoroughbred or Anglo-Arab stallions, should produce good cavalry horses. But under all circumstances the Government should be most critical in its choice of reproducing animals; *and it should not waver in the demand that the offspring must not exceed 15.2 in height*.

In my twenty years service, I have always had at least one pure-bred horse, either as charger, or second mount. I have ridden them in maneuvers, steeplechase, and cross-country.

Among the ten or fifteen horses that have passed through my hands I have had some fretful, nervous, flighty, no good

for service in war. The majority, however, easily became accustomed to contact with other horses in the troop. These became cool, saving themselves for my urgent demand, and able to deliver supreme efforts. But these are the horses that should only be put in the hands of good horsemen.

Their most common fault was lack of "rusticity" (born and raised in luxurious stable near race tracks) and weakness of their feet. I had three thoroughbred horses—one at the moment of the great mobilization—whose feet made them worthless for any long service on bad or difficult ground. The smiths who shod these horses had to be veritable artists.

During the present war I have met some officers who declared themselves entirely satisfied with thoroughbred chargers, while others said they would not have them in their squadrons. From this it must be seen there is no invariable rule.

There are conditions governing different cases.

Choose or make your cavalry horses.

With good breeding, stout, a good top line, good legs, good feet; of medium height, small rather than tall; gentle, good rustlers, not ugly to other horses, cool in temperament.

(Signed) COMMANDANT ANDRE,
Major of Cavalry, G. Q. G., 3d Bureau.

G. Q. G., May 5, 1917.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMIES OF THE N. AND N. E., ÉTAT
MAJOR 3D BUREAU.

NOTE ON THE PROPER HORSE FOR CAVALRY IN WAR.

Taking into consideration the fact that cavalry is no longer used excepting as *mounted infantry*, and that we must renounce the idea that it is a branch of service ever again to be used for shocks in fighting a campaign of charges, my idea is a cavalry horse should possess the following characteristics:

1. Height of a cavalry horse: He should be *small*.

(a) Because big horses have generally faults of conformation which make them less able to resist in carrying weight, and fatigue.

(b) Because small horses are more closely knit, better backed, thicker set. This produces a resistant body, short and muscular back, good flesh, protecting it against saddle galls.

(c) Because it is easier to feed small horses and keep them in good condition.

(d) Because their general equilibrium makes them tougher, able to endure fatigue, handy in their movements, more capable of supporting all the exigencies of mounted infantry.

2. The Arab Horse.

I have had no practical experience with this kind of a horse. The Barb seems to be in the category of horses suitable for use in war. The endurance and "rusticity" of these horses are excellent reasons to expect them to succeed in use as cavalry horses.

Still, it does not seem to them one needs choose *only* this kind of blood. Every country has animals having similar qualities. France, with its Breton horses, of the Coelay country, its Ardennais, certain small Normands, its horses of the mountainous regions about the Centre; England with its hill types from Ireland; America with its South Western horses, its Mexicans, etc., have all horses that "rustic," stout, susceptible of use as cavalry horses.

3. Degree of blood in the cavalry horse.

It is difficult for me to settle the degree of breeding I should choose in a cavalry horse; for crossing gives results of different kinds, according to the kinds of horses used.

One should give the most breeding possible to a cavalry horse, without unbalancing his organism and creating a nervousness that interferes with his use. The cavalry horse must be steady and cool-headed.

It is therefore necessary to let experience regulate the amount of breeding with each kind of horse.

4. The Thoroughbred Horse.

I have never ridden any other kind of horse. In times of peace, I asked of them every kind of service. In this war, as part of the First Cavalry Corps, I made the Belgium Campaign. On the return from these *raids*, I was detached to the Provisionary Division of General Cornulier Lucinieres, all that is left of the Cavalry Corps. After these experiences I decided that the thoroughbred horse would be the best for the cavalry, if the riders knew how to ride and care for him. As the majority of troopers are incapable of saving such superior animals from ruin, they must be taken out of the general remounts for the cavalry and reserved for the officers.

The statement which represents thoroughbred horses as nervous, unable to endure fatigue, lacking in powers of resistance, too delicate for war, should be left to cavaliers who do not deserve the name.

Conclusion.—The cavalry horse should be of medium weight, rather small, steady so as to serve as means of conveyance for cavalymen who must do the work of foot soldiers, since they have come down to that kind of work.

(Signed) CAPTAIN LE BLEU.

GRAND HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY OF THE N. AND N. E.,
ÉTAT MAJOR, 3D BUREAU.

G. Q. G., 4, May 1917.

NOTE ON THE CAVALRY HORSE FOR ACTIVE SERVICE.

1. Height of the Cavalry Horse:

The cavalry horse should be:

(a) Well balanced and smooth, so that he will have easy and running gaits; otherwise, a badly balanced horse fatigues his rider, he tires himself and uses himself up rapidly; he is subject to saddle galls, and for these reasons he suffers and gets on badly every way.

(b) *Short* on top, so he can carry weight; the load of the cavalry horse is all the time increasing.

(c) *Near the ground*, because he will have smoother gaits, he will be less stiff, and tire less easily.

(d) *Trappy and well set up*.

This combination of qualities hardly ever can be found in horses above medium height.

Indeed, tall horses that are stout in proportion, need much more feed, which is a great drawback in war.

It therefore happens that one must, incontestably, look for horses medium in size, even small horses, compact and strong. The ideal size is 15 h. to 15 h. $\frac{1}{2}$. He must never be above 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ hands, but may be less than 15h. without inconvenience, if trappy and stout.

2. The Arab horse.

I only know the *barb*, that is the horse indigenous to Northern Africa, with a slight dash of Syrian (pure Arab) blood.

This horse, to my way of thinking is the perfect type for the cavalry horse.

(a) He is exceptionally able to take care of himself in the country (rustic); having always lived in the open air, on the high tableland country of Northern Africa, exposed to great variations of temperature.

(b) He is very steady, the product of a country where water and feed are scarce.

(c) His physical conformation (low in stature, about 14.2 on the average, full in the chest, back and joints short, clean, dry limbs) make him capable of carrying weight a long time, without fatigue, so the gait is slow.

(d) He is gentle and kind, which makes him easy and not tiresome to ride.

I have always campaigned in Morocco with barb horses, under the most trying conditions, and the loss in horseflesh was practically *nil*.

I took part in a campaign through the Saharan regions, and observed many squadrons of barb horse. Their daily rations five kilos (ten pounds) of barley, without any other forage, and they drank but once a day. Their march often covered forty to fifty kilometers (twenty-five to thirty-two

miles) for several days on end, under very hard climatic conditions. They carried from 110 to 120 kilograms (230 to 264 pounds)—(including rations for horse and rider) and the horses remained saddled generally sixteen hours per diem.

Their gait of course was slow; the gallop almost never employed excepting in combat.

On the return from this campaign, which lasted about three months (with a few days' rest) the horses of my squadron came back in most satisfactory condition. The losses due to other causes than gunfire, were only 68 horses out of a total of about 120.

I am certain that in the present war, the cavalry horses have had no more fatiguing work, nor greater privations than these I mention. Only one thing can kill a barb; that is racing speed. He can go on from day to day sixty to eighty kilometers (thirty-seven and one-half to fifty miles) if you only ask four or five miles an hour as the rate of speed.

In Morocco I had two thoroughbred horses. One a big 16.2, but nervous, and of the "thoroughbred-hunter" type, suffered terribly and returned a skeleton; he was seven years old, sound and in good health.

The other, a thoroughbred, eight years old, winner of races at Longchamps, and frequently applauded in other places. This horse, of medium weight, was well set up, of good conformation, very vigorous, and of cooler temper. He stood the fatigues and privations better than the preceding. Indeed, he afterwards served as a charger for a lieutenant of Spahis through the Moroccan campaigns, 1909 to 1913, and I believe is still alive and well.

I attribute to the *exceptional* constitution of this horse the manner in which he came through this campaign.

I think one can only draw from these two examples one conclusion on the subject of the aptitudes of a thoroughbred horse to serve as the mount of an officer in a campaign. It is a fact that an officer's horse carries less weight and has better care than the ordinary troop horse; on the other hand, he is often called on for more prolonged and intense efforts. He must also be subjected to short rations and the miseries of

camping. Consequently, he also should be extremely "rustic" (able to take care of himself).

3. Amount of pure-breeding for a cavalry horse:

I have no knowledge as to the manner in which our pure-bred horses have carried themselves in the present war.

In general, those that I have seen in my old regiment of Dragoons, seemed to me too nervous to be called good troop horses.

Finally, the type of horse, in my opinion, most suitable for cavalry in modern warfare is the *Barb* (the remounts given to all our regiments of Chasseurs D'Afrique and Spahis) because of their "rusticity" (adaptation to surroundings) and ability to carry weight. This type is notably improved when crossed with pure Arab blood, which brings to the combination qualities of energy and initiative.





Military Notes

The Editor:

AMONG all the Commanding Officers that I have had, one stands sharply out because he had the most complete loyalty of every one of his officers, all of whom would work their heads off for him without complaint.

I have often compared him, and his methods, and the results he obtained, with the personality, and the methods, and the results accomplished by the Commanding Officers I had before him, and those I have had since, and I have about come to the conclusion that we were all so loyal to him because he was loyal to us; that our initiative developed under him, because he had, and showed it to us unmistakably, complete confidence in us.

Believing this, I have adopted this as my guide: *Loyalty alone induces loyalty: initiative is developed by confidence, and successful leadership depends on initiative, confidence, and loyalty.*

My answer to the question asked in the accompanying paper is that too many of our commanding officers, in the past, have not had confidence in their subordinates, and let them know it; as a result loyalty wavered, and initiative died.

Will you publish this article of mine, with this letter, but without my name? And will you invite replies?

WHY IS IT?

I have just concluded my duties as a member of an examining board. Several first lieutenants of cavalry appeared before the board. They had had, some of them, eight years of service as officers, some of them nine years, one of them ten years.

They were excellent officers. The members of the board knew them intimately; each member knew them all to be men of fine character, excellent principles and habits, efficient officers as far as past requirements had demanded results of them. There was nothing that could happen in the course of the examination, except the physical tests, that could have convinced the members of this board that these officers should not become captains. To the board they were already captains, and it was merely complying with the law in examining them. It was only a form, this examination; the men had already, by their performances of the preceding years, demonstrated their fitness for promotion.

This formal examination, conducted, as I have said, merely to save the face of the board, to enable its members to sign the required certificates, proceeded as carefully as if we did not already know the future value to the service of these officers. Examination papers were prepared that fulfilled all the requirements of the general orders bearing on the subject. The written and oral examinations brought prompt and accurate answers to our questions. In the practical tests in Drill Regulations, Small Arms Firing Regulations, Field Fortifications, Hippology, Military Topography and Packing, a sufficient knowledge of the technique of the various subjects was unmistakably apparent. But the results of the practical examination in Minor Tactics came as a bewildering disappointment.

The officers being examined showed no training in leadership; their estimates of the situations were insufficient and inaccurate; their tendency, instead of *commanding* the men of the troop assigned them, with which to solve their problems, instead of giving orders to their platoon leaders when a situation requiring action was announced them, assumed a far-a-way look, as if they were searching their memory for precedents, and answered as if they were reciting a lesson in abstract theories: "I would do so and so;" "I would give such and such orders;" "I would send such and such a message."

A few months ago I was directed to conduct the field firing of the machine gun companies of several different regiments. Before the companies assembled the captains were informed that this was *their* opportunity, that I would conduct

the firing, but that the daily programs were to be their own. I made this single stipulation in my instructions to them:

This I shall insist on: at the conferences incident to the practice no adverse criticism of the automatic machine rifle, cal. .30, model of 1909, will be permitted. Little as I know of this arm, I know enough of its defects and limitations, and so do you. What we want to do at this practice is to find out what expert men can do with it, not what they cannot do. Bear this in mind, and come here prepared to show how well you can do with your rifles, in spite of their defects.

When the companies assembled, I divided them into three groups; the officers of each group formed a committee; each day's firing was in charge of one of these committees. They were informed that they would be in full charge; that I would discuss results with them, after the firing, but that the means by which those results were to be obtained were left entirely to them; that "the bridle was off"; that they need have no fear of being found fault with if the results were not satisfactory.

It took a long time to convince those officers that their plans could actually be carried out without being first examined by some one and approved. After I had repeatedly refused to have anything to do with their daily programs, before they carried them into execution, I realized that their habit of dependence on approval precedent to any action, was a fixed one, and, one day when they were all assembled, I asked them: "Why is it that you don't go ahead when you want to do something, without asking if it is all right to do it?" One of the officers, a lieutenant, and an officer generally recognized throughout the service as an expert on the mechanical employment of machine guns, replied: "Why, Colonel, all my service I've been jumped so hard if anything that I attempted to do without authority went wrong, that I have learned that the safest way is to do only what I knew beforehand will be approved." And the other chimed in: "Same here!"

I find by searching the Army Register, that the first lieutenants referred to above have, one or more of them, at some time, served in the 3d, 6th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 13th and 15th Cavalry. The officers of the Machine Gun Companies have similarly served in the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 13th and 15th Cavalry, and in the 4th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 13th, 14th, 20th, 21st,

22d, 23d, 24th, 25th, 26th and 30th Infantry. All these officers entered the service during the Spanish War, or since then.

This, then, is the condition indicated: several lieutenants of cavalry, averaging nine years' service as officers, who have served in eight different regiments, are practically untrained in leadership. They are thoroughly trained in administrative duties; they are expert horsemen; routine duties in camp or garrison have no secrets from them; they exhibit a sufficient knowledge of military law, and, theoretically of the Field Service Regulations. They can apply the Drill Regulations on the drill field; they do not know how to fight.

At the conclusion of the examination I said to a group of them: "Gentlemen, you impress me as being like a dentist who knows how to rent his office, employ a secretary, purchase his supplies, keep his office in a sanitary condition—but who cannot fill teeth."

In the case of the officers of the Machine Gun Companies, here was a group of thirteen officers, who had served in twenty different regiments, whose service covered varying periods up to eighteen years, and whose initiative was, by their training in those regiments, completely destroyed.

And I wish to add that these were good officers, as we reckon officers in our Army, all of them; there was not a drone or a dullard among them. I think that they represent the line of the Army very fairly: * * * do they furnish a sufficient sample to lead to the inference that the officers of the Army, of their grades and length of service, are as they are, *untrained to leadership, and without initiative?*

WHY IS IT?

NEW CAVALRY EQUIPMENT.

IT will be of interest to the service to know that sufficient sets of the new cavalry equipment have been manufactured at Rock Island Arsenal, to equip two troops of cavalry at peace strength, and the troop officers.

These have been sent to the Commanding Officers of the Third and Seventeenth Cavalry Regiments, for thorough

test and report, and upon the conclusions arrived at in this final test, will depend whether or not the equipment will hereafter be manufactured to replace the equipment now in use by mounted troops. Photographs and descriptions of the new equipment have already appeared in the *CAVALRY JOURNAL*, but it will be of interest to know that the invoices of the equipment include the following articles. As will be seen from this list the Cavalry Equipment Board retained of the 1912 Equipment, every article which field tests showed to be meritorious. Chief interest of cavalry officers will center in the success of the new saddle; and also of the slip-device for carrying the rifle, on the trooper's back—an innovation which has seemed to the members of the Cavalry Board to be inevitable in the light of modern cavalry methods.

- 70 saber scabbards, service, model of 1913.
- 70 canteens, model of 1910.
- 70 canteen covers, model of 1910.
- 70 cups, model of 1910.
- 70 forks, model of 1910.
- 70 knives, model of 1910.
- 70 meat cans, model of 1910.
- 70 spoons, model of 1910.
- 70 pouches for first aid packets, model of 1910.
- 70 gunslings, model of 1907.
- 138 spur straps, upper, model of 1911.
- 138 spur straps, lower, model of 1911.
- 70 pistol holsters, model of 1916.
- 70 saber knots, model of 1912.
- 70 bandoleers, cavalry, model of 1912.
- 69 cooling straps, model of 1912.
- 69 currycombs, model of 1913.
- 69 feed bags, model of 1912.
- 69 grain bags, model of 1912.
- 69 horse brushes, model of 1912.
- 69 lariats, model of 1912.
- 70 picket pins, model of 1912.
- 70 shovels, cavalry, model of 1912.
- 70 wire cutters, model of 1910.
- 70 picks, cavalry, model of 1912.

- 70 hatchets, cavalry, model of 1912.
- 70 U. S. rifles, cal. .30, model of 1903, modified.
- 14 drift slides, No. 4.
- 14 drift slides, No. 6.
- 70 front sight covers.
- 35 oiler and thong cases, complete.
- 35 brushes and thongs.
- 35 spare parts containers, containing:
 - 35 extractors,
 - 35 firing pins,
 - 35 strikers.
- 7 cleaning rods, model of 1910.
- 7 cleaning rod cases, model of 1910.
- 14 screwdrivers.
- 70 cavalry sabers, model of 1913, modified.
- 138 spurs, model of 1917.
- 69 cartridge belts, cal. .30, cavalry, model of 1917.
 - 1 record case, N. C. O., model of 1917.
- 69, ration bags, model of 1912.
- 70 grooming cloths.
- 69 halters, stable (Johnson's), model of 1917.
 - (each includes extra tie.)
- 69 intrenching tool and picket pin carriers, model of 1917.
- 69 pommel pockets, service, model of 1917.
- 69 saddles, service, 18 in., model of 1917, with felt pads
 - (35 with open wood stirrups, L. C.; and 34 with hooded stirrups; 49 No. 1 and 20 No. 2.)
- 69 saber carriers, service, model of 1917.
- 69 bridles, cavalry, model of 1917.
 - 1 officer's saddle, complete, model of 1917, with sockets for attaching pommel pockets.
 - 1 cavalry bridle, complete, model of 1917.
 - 1 stable halter, (Johnson's) with extra tie.
 - 2 spurs, model of 1917.
 - 2 spur straps, black, upper, model of 1911.
 - 2 spur straps, black, lower, model of 1911.
 - 2 spur straps, russet, upper, model of 1911.
 - 2 spur straps, russet, lower, model of 1911.
 - 1 saber carrier, model of 1917.

- 1 cantle bag.
- 1 cooling strap, model of 1912, O. D.
- 1 curry comb.
- 1 grain bag, model of 1912.
- 1 feed bag, model of 1912, O. D.
- 1 horse brush, model of 1912.
- 1 lariat, model of 1912.
- 1 picket pin carrier, special, model of 1912.
- 1 pommel pockets, model of 1912, with socket attachment for attaching to saddle.
- 7 arm chests, rifle.
- 70 pick covers, cavalry, model of 1912.
- 70 hatchet covers, cavalry, model of 1912.

WHAT IS A REJECT.

(From the Breeder's Gazette.)

IN the agreement for purchasing public animals issued by the Quartermaster Corps of the United States is an interesting section. It's number is seventeen, and it reads as follows:

"No animal tendered by the contractor and rejected by any purchasing officer shall again be tendered for inspection under this agreement by the contractor except upon express permission obtained from the purchasing officer designated to inspect animals under this agreement. Wilful violation of this prohibition by the contractor shall be ground for the immediate rescission of this agreement."

In the April number of "The JOURNAL OF THE U. S. CAVALRY ASSOCIATION" Captain James N. Munro, Q. M. Corps (cavalry), has an article entitled "Notes on our Remount Service." Among other things the Captain notes:

"On one occasion some fifty-three or four horses were inspected by one officer, who accepted only two from the lot. The remainder, all rejects, were led a distance of less than half a mile, presented under another contract to another officer and accepted to a horse. This occurred not once but many times until official cognizance was taken of it and means were taken to stop it."

What means were taken? What remedy should be applied to an inspector who accepts only two horses out of fifty-three good ones and repeats the offense many times? The agreement does not tell. Section 17 provides that the contractor may apply for permission to show again to the same Board that rejected and for failure so to do may have his contract rescinded. He may appeal from Cæsar unto Cæsar. The rejecting officer has no appeal. He can only apologize. Captain Munro testifies to the efficiency of the horse contractor thus: "I found that contractors generally do their best to furnish as nearly the type of animals that their inspector will accept as it is possible for them to do under the terms of the contract."

Further on the Captain gracefully admits, "Inasmuch as I was without any practical experience with artillery horses I made every effort to get the opinion of artillery officers as to their requirements. I received a variety of opinions equal to the number of officers consulted."

There you have it.

"*Horses is horses*" and no two men look at them alike. Why then apply the opprobrious epithet of "reject" to a good horse that one man will not have and another one will? Why prohibit a contractor from disposing of good, suitable, serviceable horses that anybody ought to take the first time through?

L. A. H.

CHANGE OF UNIFORM FOR MOUNTED OFFICERS.

CHANGES in uniform of the United States Army are most important and of course should not be considered unless for some real purpose. It has always appeared to me that the dress coat for mounted troops is a monstrosity. I do not believe there is any doubt among mounted officers but that the present dress coat is not only unsightly but inconvenient in every way for mounted troops. A long tailed coat built on the style of the civilian Prince Albert coat certainly is

improper for mounted troops. What we need is a short coat built on proper lines which would not only be better looking but very much more convenient for mounted officers. The old idea that the dress coat should be the same for all officers, both mounted and dismounted, has long since been exploded. If changes of any kind are contemplated by the War Department in the near future of course now is the time for it to be done. It is hoped that all mounted officers will favor a change of this kind.

CAVALRY.

NOTES ON THE CAVALRY WORK OF THE CENTRAL POWERS.

THE work done by the German cavalry is reported to have been excellent, in reconnoitering, in clearing the fronts of hostile cavalry, and in locating the main bodies of the enemy.

During the war, there have been no large engagements of cavalry against cavalry, in connection with any general engagement; and cavalry, as such, has not exerted a decisive influence on the outcome of any battle. But it is reported on excellent authority, that in the sphere in which modern military conditions have placed it, cavalry has proved itself as indispensable as ever.

During the great drive of the German Army through Belgium and into France, the screening and reconnoissance work of the German cavalry is said to have been admirable, and of a value not easily to be estimated.

On the eastern front, the cavalry work has chiefly been that of reconnoissance on a large scale, and of patrolling. There have been numerous fights with the enemy's cavalry, and although details are lacking, it is known that dismounted action and the use of machine guns played an important part in these engagements.

On the western front, the German cavalry (like the British), has taken its place in the trenches, and the great

value of dismounted action by cavalry, has been forced on the German commanders. The Germans have made it a practice to make their cavalry patrols small, and have so supported the latter with artillery and machine guns, that the Entete cavalry in the first months of the war was drawn within range and suffered heavy losses. In 1915, General von Hindenberg expressed the opinion that cavalry patrols would be not smaller than a squadron, and would invariably be accompanied by field guns and machine guns.

During the campaign of 1914, the Austro-Hungarian cavalry performed its customary role of screening, reconnoissance, patrolling, and flank guard duty. For some time after this period of "war of movement" however, it was little used except behind the lines. Later in the war, after having been forced to revise the rules of cavalry warfare, it entered upon a combination of mobile action and trench warfare. One observer states that, "it fought like infantry and rode like cavalry."

On one occasion, a cavalry division marched forty-two miles, in one night, went into action and fought on foot during the day, and the following night returned to a position near its point of departure. This meant eighty-four miles in thirty-six hours, including a day of fighting on foot. The strength of this Austro-Hungarian division was 4,000 troopers.

On another occasion in East Galicia, an officer's patrol of one officer and twenty men covered 342 miles in six days. The average load per horse was 300 pounds, and there were no sore backs. The mounts were of the stocky type, weighing about 1,000 pounds, well bred, and from 15 to 15.2 hands in height.

X.

A WATERPROOF DRESSING.

The Editor:

I HAVE read with interest your "Notes on Cavalry Equipment," appearing in the July issue of the U. S. CAVALRY JOURNAL, and note that a waterproof dressing is needed in order to render the use of web ration pockets practicable.

The writer in experiments to render covers of various sorts impervious to water has had more than a fair degree of success, especially with canvas alfalfa cock covers by following this procedure: "Make a saturated solution of aluminum hydrate and soak the material over night (time varying according to size and quality of material). Remove from solution and dry in the air. Use when thoroughly dry."

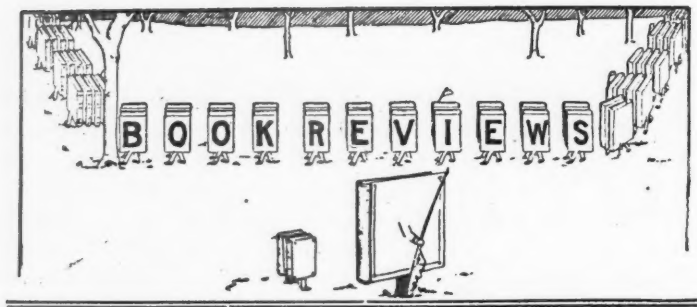
This procedure may be worthless in rendering web pockets waterproof but may be taken for what it is worth, *i. e.*, as a basis for experimentation in the use of aluminum salts as waterproofing material.

Respectfully,

T. W. CHURCHILL,

Second Lieutenant Veterinary Reserve Corps.





**Cortina
Manual.***

This book, as its title suggests, is quite extensive in scope. Presupposing a knowledge of French, on its readers part, it presents in successive chapters word lists and conversations on all sorts of military subjects. In addition, full information is given concerning French insignia, maps, flags, and decorations, and the arms and tools of the army, all of which are illustrated with indexed diagrams. Finally, the book contains French, English and English-French vocabularies, each of some 2,000 words.

For those with a fair knowledge of French, the Cortina Manual should prove a useful supplement in extending their knowledge on the military side. It will hardly be of such general interest as Colonel Willcox's "War French," as it lacks any treatment of grammar, and is written with less appreciation of the American's difficulties in studying French.

Major General Leonard Wood, in a brief Foreword, has given his cordial endorsement to the book.

*"CORTINA FRENCH-ENGLISH MILITARY MANUAL." By Jean A. Picard, of the French Army. The Cortina Academy of Languages. New York City. Price, \$2.00.

**War
French.***

Colonel Willcox, Professor of Modern Languages at West Point, and well known as the author of our standard technical French dictionary, has contributed a most attractive addition to the list of books on military French. To a *coup d'oeil* of grammar it adds some well-chosen word-lists and conversations; France and its army are briefly described (in English); some distinctive French passages are presented for translation; and the book closes with French-English and English-French vocabularies of over 2,000 words.

This handy-sized little volume should be particularly useful to the many who have "studied some French" but who are decidedly "out of practice." For such readers, it will recall the essentials of grammar, and lead in an interesting way into the military phraseology. The treatment of French verbs is quite full, though no pretense is made of presenting a text-book of grammar. The word-lists and conversations cover all the branches of the Service, and include the slang of the trenches.

**Soldier's
Catechism.†**

This book is made up of 1,098 questions and answers, many of which, however, require a page or more for the answer, as, for instance, in answering the question as to what are the signals used by artillery, over a page is taken for the answer.

The following are the headings of the several chapters: Rifle and equipment; infantry drill regulations; signalling; rules of land warfare; army regulations and discipline; bayonet combat; history of the United States; firing regulations; first

*"WAR FRENCH," By Colonel Cornelis DeW. Willcox, U. S. Army. The Macmillan Company. New York City. Price, \$0.75.

†"WHAT A SOLDIER SHOULD KNOW. The Soldier's Catechism." By Major F. C. Bolles, Third Infantry, Captain E. C. Jones, Medical Department, and Captain J. S. Upham, Third Infantry. With an Introduction by Major General Hugh L. Scott, U. S. A. Fully illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Company. Garden City, New York. Price, \$1.00, net.

aid; camp sanitation and personal hygiene; venereal disease; and guard manual.

It has an introduction by Major General Hugh L. Scott, U. S. Army.

**Spoken
French.***

This little book should make a particular appeal to those men in the service, with limited time at their disposal, who have little or no initial knowledge of French, and who are yet desirous of learning the language. It comprises thirty-six short lessons, in which are presented the bare essentials of grammar, shorn of all confusing exceptions and nice differentiations. Each lesson in addition includes a word-list, selected for the particular needs of the military, and some suggestive exercises for practice.

Throughout the book emphasis is placed upon the *spoken* language. With this purpose in view, a set of phonetic symbols is employed in learning the words, and the French spelling is not directly studied until the latter part of the course. These symbols are probably as satisfactory as any such device can be, but the method gains in value if supplemented by the help of a competent instructor.

The book has been adopted for use at several officers' training camps. The proceeds are to be devoted to the army work of the Y. M. C. A.

**Problems
for
Cavalry.†**

This is a book along the lines of "Small Problems for Infantry" which has been gotten out at the Army Service Schools. It is a book of 107 pages—6 in. by 9 in.—and contains fourteen problems illustrating the handling of small groups of cavalry.

*"FIRST LESSONS IN SPOKEN FRENCH FOR MEN OF MILITARY SERVICE." By E. H. Wilkins, A. Coleman, and M. R. Muse. University of Chicago, Ill. Price, \$0.50.

†"SMALL PROBLEMS FOR CAVALRY." Under the direction of Department of Military Art at the Army Service Schools. 1917. Price, \$0.50.

The problems in this book have been tried out at the Service Schools and it is only after they have been discussed by all the instructors and the consensus of opinions obtained by all of them that the problem is published.

No Troop Commander, or any Cavalry Officer for that matter, should be without this book even at any price, but the price at which it is sold makes it the cheapest and the best book a cavalryman can purchase.

**The Foes
of our
Household.***

The name of the author is a sufficient guarantee of the worth of this book. A brief extract from the Foreword will give an idea what the book is about. "The man who still asks 'why we are at war' or apologizes in any way for Germany, should look to his own soul; he is neither a patriot nor a true American, nor a lover of mankind; and the foes of *his* own household are the folly and the cowardice and the cold selfishness of his own heart.

"We should hold Germany in horror for what she has done! But we should regard with contempt and loathing the Americans who directly or indirectly give her aid and comfort; whether they do so by downright attack on our own country, by upholding Germany, by assailing any of our Allies; by trying to discourage our people from vigorous, resolute, unyielding prosecution of the war, or by crying on behalf of peace, peace, when there ought not to be peace."

The book has 347 pages and is well printed with clear and large type and on good paper.

*"THE FOES OF OUR OWN HOUSEHOLD." By Theodore Roosevelt. 1917. George H. Doran Company. Price, \$1.50, net.

**Field
Artillery
Details ***

Notes on Training Field Artillery Details is a book that fills a long felt want in the service. Its authors are both practical Field Artillerymen of much experience both at the School of Fire for Field Artillery and in the service at large.

Cavalry officers serving in Provisional Field Artillery Regiments and the multitude of new officers coming into the Field Artillery service will find this book together with their Ordnance Handbook of Material and Drill Regulations a fairly complete library to take into the field.

It covers the teachings of our School of Fire for Field Artillery along the lines of Training Special Details quite thoroughly.

The matter of laying by compass and the use of maps and protractors which is in such general use in the Field Artillery abroad is extensively treated.

The "Battery Commanders place sketch," when used with the circular protractor and range arms becomes a plotting board which should be of value in the close work required in trench warfare.

The Book Department of the Army Service Schools is turning out card board protractors, range arms and plotting sheets with graduated edges for use with this text by officers of the Provisional Officers Battalion. Army Service Schools, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

A hearty reception by the members of the service, is predicted for this excellent volume.

W. F. S.

*"NOTES ON TRAINING FIELD ARTILLERY DETAILS." By Captain Robert M. Danforth, F. A., U. S. A., and Captain Onorio Moretti, F. A., U. S. R. Yale University Press. Price, \$2.00.

BOOK NOTICES.

"COMPLETE UNITED STATES INFANTRY GUIDE FOR OFFICERS AND NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS." Reprinted from Government Publications. Arranged by Major James K. Parsons, U. S. Infantry. Buckram binding. Price \$6.00 net. J. P. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia and London.

This is a volume of 2,176 pages which contains reprints of twenty-five government books or pamphlets, which pertain to the infantry.

"ELEMENTS OF TRENCH WARFARE. Bayonet Training." By Captain William H. Waldron, 29th U. S. Infantry. "There is a wealth of material in this little book that will interest the soldier. * * * It is essentially a soldier's book, written in language that he can understand. The price has been kept within the limits of his pocketbook." Edwin N. Appleton, 1 Broadway, New York. 1917. Price 75 cents, postage prepaid.

"HOW TO LIVE AT THE FRONT. Tips for American Soldier." By Hector MacQuarrie, B. A. Cantab. Second Lieutenant Royal Field Artillery. Twelve full page illustrations. J. B. Lippincott Company. 1917. Philadelphia and London. Price \$1.25, net. "It is an informal book but one with a tremendous drive in the right direction."

"LE SOLDAT AMERICAN EN FRANCE." By Algernon Colemand and A. Marin La Meslee. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill. Price 50 cents, net, 52 cents prepaid.

This is one of the numerous little handbooks that have come out during the war which gives a knowledge of the French language, or a smattering of it, in the shortest time. It is a small book, 4 in. by 6 in., of 118 pages and is confined to what a soldier should know in making known his wants when in France.

"SELECTIVE SERVICE MANUAL. A Manual of Elementary Drill and Physical Training." Prepared especially for men registered under the "Selective Service Act." By A. L. James, Jr., Captain 15th Cavalry, U. S. A. The Times-Mirror Printing and Binding House, Los Angeles, Cal. Its table of contents covers the following subjects: Suggestions to men under the "Selective Service Act;" Physical Training; Elementary Infantry Drill; Elementary Cavalry Drill; Useful Information. It is a small book of 262 pages—4 in. by 5½ in.

"MOBILIZING AMERICA." By Arthur Bullard, author of "The Diplomacy of the Great War." 1917. The Macmillan Company, New York. Price 50 cents. The following are its Chapters: America goes to war; Democracies as fighting machines; The mobilizing of public opinion; The mobilization of industry; The mobilization of men; A programme.

"THE SOLDIER'S DIARY AND NOTE BOOK." This is a small diary issued by the Crowell Company—3 in. by 5 in.—the first forty-two pages of which is devoted to useful information. It has about a dozen pages for a cash account and three or four memoranda.

Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York.

"FIELD SANITATION. A Manual for Non-commissioned Officers." By Lieutenant Colonel James Sprigg Wilson, U. S. Army. Fourth edition. Illustrated. 1917. George

Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin. This little book— $4\frac{3}{4}$ by $5\frac{1}{2}$ —of 125 pages. The following are the headings of its chapters: Introduction; camp diseases; personal hygiene and clothing; water and its purification; subsistence; wastes and their disposal; first aid; sanitary service in campaign and bibliography.

"VADE-MECUM. For the use of Officers and Interpreters in the Present Campaign. French and English Technical and Military Terms." By Eugene Plumon, Officer Interprete Stagaire pres le Corps Expeditionnaire Britannique. New and revised edition. Hachete & Co., Paris and London. Brentamo's, New York and Washington. This is a small pocket book—4 in. by 6 in.—of 164 pages.



Editor's Table

SUSPENSION OF PUBLICATION OF THE MILITARY SERVICE INSTITUTION JOURNALS.

It is with sincere regret that the service will learn from the *Editor's Bulletin* that the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* will suspend publication beginning with the new year. It has been apparent to the friends of that Journal for several years that it was suffering from a lack of generous supply of material from which to select articles for publication. For several years the editor has had to depend mainly upon the results of the essay competitions, and even there much disappointment has existed in the limited number of those who have entered these competitions.

The reason for suspension at this time is a financial one. While the year 1917 to date shows through resignation and death of members a net loss of membership of only seventeen, so large a number have failed to pay their annual dues that it has materially embarrassed the treasurer. With a wide scattering of officers incident to the present war and the difficulties of transmitting small subscriptions, it seemed a hopeless task to follow them up with a request for payment of dues.

The Military Service Institute was started many years ago by a most forceful and intellectual group of officers of high rank, survivors of the Civil War. These gentlemen recognized to the full that with the passing of the veterans of that great conflict and the growth of ease and fireside comfort which results from long periods of well fed peace, our nation would lose

interest in preparedness and that our small army would maintain with great difficulty a knowledge of the problems of war in all its manifold branches, unless we had some medium for maintaining that knowledge through the publication of the latest developments of the art of war and in the sciences as applied to war, among the great military nations of Europe. The all but hopeless campaign which has been carried on under so many difficulties during the past twenty-five years by a group of army officers to instruct the American people in their woeful deficiencies in modern military equipment, and in the modern practice of war, has been materially aided by the Military Service Institution and its Journal.

The breaking away from the parent society incident to the establishment of special service associations, each publishing a journal, seriously reduced the interest in the more general society in a way that has not been altogether for the best interests of the service itself. A few years ago when interest in the military service had fallen so low that it was almost impossible to see any light ahead, it appeared desirable and proper to establish special journals with a view to developing as much as possible the several arms through free and full discussion of everything concerning those arms, especially their history, for the benefit of the officers of the particular branches.

The readjustment which will follow this great war will bring about conditions which no man can now foresee. It will then be a matter of duty for those who remain in the permanent establishment to restore the Military Service Institution to the functions which our worthy forebears had contemplated for it, and of holding special service journals as far as possible to the narrow limits which were contemplated for them in their establishment. If this cannot be done, it would be better for the whole service, which, for success, must depend upon team play, to seriously consider whether it would not be worth while to throw all support to the general society with its headquarters on Governors' Island, and utilize certain parts of the journal as special allotments of space to each arm. This would enable those who do not care to keep up on all service, to read only the part pertaining to their own arm.

Every effort has been made by the most experienced and serious minded officers to prevent anything appearing in the various journals of their arms which would militate against good feeling and team play, upon which success in war must always depend. In the interest of the service and with the highest appreciation of and gratitude toward the veteran generals of the Civil War who started the movement for professional improvement upon its slow and upward climb, to the present state of military efficiency, as indicatedly by the work of the General Staff at this time, let us hope for the early restoration of the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, and that the hopes and ambitions of those who inaugurated that institution shall be realized in the new army which shall come with the reorganization from the War of 1917.

W. H. C.

THE AMERICAN RED STAR ANIMALS RELIEF.

In our July, 1917, number of the CAVALRY JOURNAL, we stated that we were not cognizant of a Society in the United States that was similar to the Blue Cross Society, the Red Cross for horses, I find that we were mistaken in this.

We have received from Mr. James Martin, of Dover, Delaware, a note in which he calls my attention to a leaflet which he enclosed. It is as follows:

YOUR COUNTRY CALLS.

THE AMERICAN RED STAR ANIMAL RELIEF

NEEDS YOUR HELP!

Organized on the suggestion of the United States Secretary of War for the relief of sick and injured army animals.

Branches wanted everywhere.

Write for full information, Dr. WILLIAM O. STILLMAN,
Director General, Albany, New York.

As is generally known, the American Red Star Animal Relief was organized last May by the American Humane Association on the suggestion of the United States War Department. It is designed to supply a somewhat similar relief for the United States army animals to that provided by the Red Cross for the sick and injured soldiers.

Those who have the best interest of the Army at heart and are anxious to have the animals humanely cared for will do all in their power to assist in developing the work of the American Red Star Animal Relief. It was necessary for the Red Cross, a volunteer organization, to provide care for sick and injured soldiers. It is likewise necessary for the public to provide adequate funds to meet the pressing needs of the American Red Star Animal Relief.

